

TERRAQUEA;

OR, A

NEW SYSTEM

OF

Geography and Modern History.

BY

THE REV. JAMES GORDON,

VICAR OF BARRAGH, IN IRELAND.

VOLUME II.

DUBLIN:

PRINTED FOR THE AUTHOR,
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M.DCC.XCIII.

TERRA AUSTRALIS

NEW SYSTEM

Geography and General History

THE REV. JAMES GORDON

48, LONDON, IN ENGLAND.

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M. GORDON

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IT has been found convenient to divide the matter of three very unequal volumes which were proposed to be furnished to subscribers, in such manner as to make four of a size less unequal. This will not cause any alteration in the price of the set, which is a guinea for the four volumes, to subscribers, but the difference will be considerable in the two last volumes to non-subscribers. The descriptions of France and the Netherlands, which were ready to be printed as a part of this volume, are, for good reasons, deferred; and it is hoped that these descriptions, which the author expects to lay soon before the public in another volume, will be found to contain some interesting matter.

A-D-V-E-R-T-I-S-E-M-E-N-T.

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P R E F A C E.

SOME apology may be expected for my delay in the publication of this volume; but of the general causes of such delay a hint has been already given in the preface of my first. To obtain an effective perusal of several hundred volumes of travels, history, essays, &c. necessary for the due completion of the plan which I have adopted, is, except to a person of easy fortune, by no means an easy matter. Many of these books bear a high price, and some of them are not immediately procurable even for money: I have been obliged to await the arrival of some from France, and of a few even from Italy.

IN the intervals of interruption and delay, which unavoidably occurred, I began a new work, a Political History of the royal house of Hanover, or, of the British Court and Empire, from the accession of George the First, to the present time; the materi-

als

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als of which, though complex enough, happen to be more within my reach. This work I hope I shall publish (not by subscription) soon after I shall have cleared my hands of this geographical treatise, in the collecting of the materials of which I have found much pleasure, but also met such difficulty, that the delay of publication would have been much greater, or, very probably (for I would by no means choose to publish without obtaining all possible information)

I should have been obliged to relinquish it quite for a time, and to return to those who have paid their subscriptions the overplus of their money above the price of the first volume, if I had not experienced the beneficent attention of two persons of rank, by whom I have been enabled to publish this second volume, to have almost finished the manuscript of the third, and to have made a considerable progress in that of the fourth. To prepare for publication the third, which is to contain a new account of the British islands, I am only to make an excursion to some parts of this kingdom which I have not as yet been able to visit, in order to finish my description of Ireland.

ONE of the persons of rank, to whom I have above alluded, is the Right Honourable the Earl of Courtown, whose generous protection I have
long

long experienced. My gratitude indeed, though principally and most eminently due to his lordship, extends also, for their polite and humane attention, to some others of the amiable family of Stopford, particularly one whom I formerly took the liberty of naming: I may safely say amiable, since the character of this family is sufficiently established to preclude in this case the imputation of flattery. Flattering truths I am always ready to avow for the honour of humanity. Of flattering falsehoods none, I imagine, who know me, could easily suppose me guilty; and of such, either in my writing or conversation, none, I am certain, can produce an instance.

THE other, to whom I am so essentially obliged for enabling me to prosecute this geographical work, is the Right Reverend Euseby Cleaver Lord Bishop of Leighlin and Ferns, who from goodness alone conferred a benefice on me, and augmented the favour by the mode of conferring it. It is with a more than ordinary sensation of pleasure that I feel and avow my great obligation to this worthy prelate, whose paternal superintendence, in the true spirit of Christianity, is experienced and acknowledged by the formerly neglected clergy of the diocese in which I live; a diocese, which before his
lordship's

PREFACE

lordship's appointment to it, was, an episcopal sine-cure, like some others which I might name, if it were necessary, where

—Talent sinks and merit weeps unknown.

I HAVE said above that I mean not to publish my next work by subscription. I could wish indeed that I could have published the present without it, were it not that this mode of publication has been attended with one very agreeable circumstance, that I have thereby found who are my friends. On the publication of my proposals many persons unasked became subscribers, and some of them also applied to others in my favour. I assure those gentlemen and ladies that I am fully sensible of their kindness. I cannot doubt but my list would have been far greater, if I had solicited subscriptions; but this I studiously avoided, except that I applied to six or seven gentlemen, of whose liberality of sentiment I could entertain no distrust. I unfortunately, however, made application to one (not on account of any liberality of sentiment of which I might erroneously have supposed him to be possessed, but because I thought he must have had some recollection of services, which I had formerly performed for him, to a far greater amount than any such matter could compensate) who behaved in so indecorous a manner, that, if he were worth the attention, he ought

ought to be exposed; but though his fortune and talents are respectable, yet, from the opinion which I entertain of the soul so undeservedly adorned with these talents, I heartily despise him, and leave him without farther notice to his well protected colony of foxes, (congenial animals, I suppose,) and to his labours to procure an opportunity of demonstrating in his own person that corrupt influence, of which he so loudly accuses the ministry, as exercised in the Irish House of Commons.

AN approbation much above my most sanguine hopes, which my first volume has gained from many persons of taste and information, must give me great pleasure; nor have I heard of any objections made to it, but such as are frivolous, many of them contradictory one to another, and almost all unworthy of notice.

SOME have made the paucity of maps an objection; but I must positively say, that none who understand the subject can think this objection founded in reason; or, that, except merely in compliance with an erroneous prejudice, any maps ought to be inserted in these volumes. If large maps were bound in such volumes, they would be so awkward and unmanageable that the purchasers ought by all means to cut them out for the sake of convenience.

Why

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Why then should they be inserted? Even small maps are awkward, and are at the same time of very little, or rather, to speak more precisely, of no effective use. Some maps however, intended for this volume, are by an accident occasioned by the death of my engraver necessarily deferred, but will be given hereafter, and may be inserted in their proper places, when the books shall go to be bound.

A COMPETENT geographical idea of the general surface of the globe can be obtained only by the inspection of an artificial sphere. For acquiring the like ideas of the several parts of this surface large maps detached from books are alone useful, fixed on rollers, suspended in chambers, or bound together so as to form what are called Atlases. To imagine that every book of geography or history is to carry with it all the maps requisite for its complete illustration, is to imagine that every modern history of Britain or France, for instance, or even of the reign, or of a part of the reign, of one of the monarchs of either of these countries, must have maps enough inserted in it to form an Atlas. The idea is so absurd as to carry its own refutation.

DUNN's Atlas may serve very well for those who choose not to go to the expence of a larger. Some, which

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which have appeared lately as immediate appendages to certain books of geography, are cheaper indeed, but erroneous enough, as having been executed for booksellers without any person of geographical knowledge to superintend the performance. I am to publish an Atlas on as cheap a plan as utility will permit, not merely as an appendage to this work, but for general use, as every atlas ought to be, and to sell it to such of my subscribers as shall choose to purchase it, at half the price at which it can be sold to others.

IN the Monthly Review for September 1791, where my first volume is very slightly noticed, I am said to have fallen into an unlucky mistake with respect to the Baobab tree, and the proof brought against me, is the authority of Chambers' Dictionary, "that valuable summary of human knowledge." I knew what was said in that dictionary, with respect to this article, before I wrote; I could, if I wished to argue inconclusively, produce other compilations in opposition to it, particularly different editions of the Encyclopedia. The reviewer however may be right with respect to the matter, but, at all events, he is wrong in grounding his criticism on Chambers' Dictionary as an infallible criterion, whatever either *human*, or *divine*, knowledge may be repositied in it. My authority was of
3 a supericr

a superior kind, an original one; and by a comparison of such authorities I expect to put the matter out of dispute, when I come to treat of the country where the Baobab grows. I shall always be very much obliged to objectors who shall bring proofs with their objections, for I ardently wish to be informed and have my errors corrected; but this objection has added nothing to my stock of information.

THE reviewer has also said this system of geography has no very observable difference from that which has been published under the name of Guthrie: But certainly if any person shall give himself the unprofitable trouble of comparing the two systems, he must find them totally and essentially different, whatever may be the merits or demerits of each. The reviewer, I am persuaded, saved himself the trouble of reading my volume, except a few lines and quotations here and there: Yet, even thus, he might have seen that the plan was different. I can, however, ascribe his wrong report to haste and inadvertence alone: at the same time this was not quite consistent with his duty as a public literary censor. The Monthly Review is doubtless a very useful periodical publication, well deserving encouragement, and that more in proportion to the accuracy,

accuracy, candor, and impartiality of its criticisms. I know not by whom, or how, it is conducted; but I suppose that several persons are occasionally employed; and these ought surely to be faithful in their functions.

I HAVE had from early youth an uncommon predilection for the study of Geography, and read with avidity every compilation which I could find on the subject: but my curiosity was very imperfectly gratified by the perusal of these works; my doubts and queries concerning the several regions and nations of the globe remaining mostly unsatisfied and unanswered. The satisfaction which I had sought with so little success in compilations, I endeavoured to obtain by a research into the original accounts of voyages and travels, the histories of particular countries, and other documents. Herein my success was much greater, but still it was evident that no just idea could be formed of any country and its inhabitants, without a very laborious and cautious comparison of the various documents relating to it. This had been by no means performed in compilations, in the very largest and most comprehensive of which much material information had been omitted, and many frivolous, dubious, and erroneous relations retained. By even the fullest and
least

least unsatisfactory of these, the modern universal history in forty-four very large octavo volumes, the reader has full as good a chance of being bewildered and misguided, as of being instructed; though some volumes of that very operose publication are vastly better compiled than the rest.

I WAS convinced that all the matter which could be collected on this subject, at once authentic and meriting the attention of the intelligent reader, might be condensed into a comparatively very small compass, and so arranged as to prove entertaining, instead of dull and fatiguing in the perusal. Nothing of this kind had been accomplished in the smaller compilations, such as the system under the name of Guthrie; each of these being, in general, a mere combination of ill chosen plagiarisms, or shreds transcribed, taken hastily, and, as it were, fortuitously from a very few out of the multitude of writings which ought to have been consulted, and tacked together to form a book, with scarcely any thing original from the reflection of the compiler; without giving any tolerable notion of the general surface of the globe, or of the contours of particular countries, or any satisfactory information concerning the manners, &c. of the several nations, indeed of any one nation. I am sorry to have been forced into these strictures, the truth of which, however, cannot

cannot be disputed by any person acquainted with the subject, especially with respect to the last named system.

THE merit of the compiler of such a work seems to me to have *no very observable difference* from that of a manufacturer, who should hastily gather some scraps of woollen, or any other kind of stuff which he could readily find, and tack them together to compose what he might call a new piece, or web, destitute of beauty, strength, and uniformity; instead of carefully selecting all the strongest and finest threads, or yarn, fit for his purpose; studiously arranging them in the regular order of warp and woof; and working them by a deliberate, steady, and laborious process, into a uniform, or uniformly variegated piece of cloth, the firmest and most beautiful which his abilities can produce.

THE composition of our best histories, as those of Gibbon, Mitford, Hume, and Robertson, may be compared to the latter mode of manufacture; that of our modern books of geography, particularly Guthrie's, to the former patchwork. To rescue this province of literature from so despicable a state, is my presumptuous aim in this attempt.—
“ My mode has been to collect all the authentic information which I possibly could concerning each country,

country, and to endeavour to give to my readers, from a collective view and careful comparison of all the facts, a general idea in concise and plain terms *.” How far my attempt may be accompanied with success, the public have partly an opportunity of judging, from the two volumes already published, and will soon have a better opportunity when the others shall have been laid before them. I am sorry, however, that this very requisite, and by no means easy task had not been undertaken by some person of superior powers, and not left to devolve on one whose only merit, as a writer, is rectitude of intention, and industry in application.

I HAVE here named only one geographical system, none other having been named by the Reviewer, and none other agreeing better to the character above given. To detail its defects, would be to trespass on the reader by swelling this preface with unimportant matter. But, independently of stile and arrangement, whatever difference may be found between the parts of this work of mine already published, and the corresponding parts of that system, as to the quantity of information, the difference will be prodigiously greater in the descriptions of Asiatic, and other Extra-European countries, beside tables of languages, weights, measures, &c.

* Preface of the first Volume.

which

which are to be given in a subsequent volume. Beside the omission of interesting, and the insertion of trifling matter, the patch-work manner of compilation subjects the work to contradictions and absurdities. Thus, in the last edition, Dublin 1789, page 767, it is said that a certain people of India "are the only people in the known world "that go absolutely naked." In speaking of the Pelew Islands, it is said, p. 943, that "the men go "entirely naked;" and again of New Holland, p. 949, that the inhabitants are naked savages;" which is very true not only of these people, but of many other savages in various tropical regions who go absolutely naked †. A late traveller ‡ says, "Perhaps no work, that is not systematically false, contains more errors than the Geographical Grammar published under the name of William Guthrie." This traveller speaks only with respect to the countries of North America which he himself had visited; but the same may with justice be said of the descriptions of other American, African, Asiatic, and even some European countries.

† See Terraquea, vol. 1. General View, sect. 9.

‡ De Warville.

ERRATA.

Page 33 (in the note) for *arise*, read *raise*.

51 line 3 for 33, read 3.

211 line 6 for *Epomes*, read *Epomeo*.

270 line 18 for *wild boars, hams*, read *wild boars hams*

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TERRAQUEA.

THE ITALIAN PENINSULA

AND ITS ISLANDS.

ITALY,

APENINSULA much resembling a boot in its figure, receives into its bosom no large inlets of the deep, excepting the gulf of Taranto or Tarentum, which forms, as it were, the hollow of the foot between the long narrow heel and the sole. The coasts of Italy however furnish a great number of creeks, bays, and other openings for the reception of shipping; but, with the admission of some exceptions, these may be said to be too shallow for ships of large burthen. The celebrated mountains of the Alps, astonishingly high and rugged, General face and mountains.

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rugged, compose a most formidable barrier, which sequesters this peninsula from the main continent, excepting that a few narrow passes are formed among these vast mountains, and that on the north of the Adriatic a tolerably easy entrance is left between that sea and these huge ramparts. In continuity with the Pennine Alps, or those chains of the vast Alpine System which advancing to the Mediterranean separate Italy from France, runs the great Appennine ridge,* throughout the entire length of this peninsula. This famous chain, much inferior to the Alps in ruggedness and height, yet very lofty in general, and in many parts even sublime, runs first to the east, leaving but a narrow coast between it and the Mediterranean; then turning above Bologna, and tending towards the south east, it separates Tuscany from Umbria, and crossing the Pope's territories enters the kingdom of Naples, where, about the lake of Celano, it rises to its greatest elevation, its summits being clothed all the year with snow†, and spreads in such a manner as to overrun most of the northern provinces of that kingdom‡, and to have its feet washed by the waves of the Adriatic§. Running to the south through that part which may be called the foot of Italy, it falls in two great

* See Swinburne's Travels in the two Sicilies, vol. 2. Dublin, 1786, p. 415.

† See in the Annual Register for 1786, p. 101, a Letter of Sir William Hamilton to Sir Joseph Banks.

‡ Swinburne, vol. 2, p. 414.

§ Swinburne, vol. 2, p. 490.

chains perpendicularly on a transversal mass of mountains, which diminishes into hills on the southern side, and terminates so as to leave a gap or break in the Appennine, through which an easy intercourse is had over land from shore to shore *, where the peninsula is contracted to its least breadth, the distance between the Ionian sea and the Mediterranean being there perhaps not above twenty miles. From this gap the Appennine again rising aloft proceeds to the Faro or Strait of Messina, where it is supposed to plunge beneath the waves, and to be continued by a submarine chain to the mountains of Taormina in the Island of Sicily.

This vast Appennine ridge, which constitutes the spine of the Italian peninsula, and occupies a considerable portion of its surface, contains within its component mountains a multitude of beautiful vallies variously elevated. From it the plan of the soil declines with an irregular and broken descent to the seas on both sides, expanding into plains of various magnitude, particularly between the Appennine and the Alps, where the country is level to a vast extent. That part which may be denominated the heel of Italy, the ancient Japygia, is destitute of mountains, and may be considered as a plain interspersed with hills and gentle swellings of the ground †. Through several other parts of

A 2

the

* Swinburne, vol. 2, p. 414.

† In most maps of Italy the heel is represented as divided in the middle by a chain of mountains branching from the Appennines.

the peninsula the branches of the Appennine run in various directions, one of which forms the promontory of Sorrento * or Surrentum ; besides that the country is in some places crossed by insulated ranges, or studded with detached mountains. Among the insulated ranges is Monte Gargano †, or Mons Garganus, filling great part of a projecting tract, which, from its relative position with respect to the whole, fancy has made the spur of this boot-formed peninsula.

Vesuvius. Of detached or insulated mountains Vesuvius claims our attention most. This is a volcano, or ignivomous mountain, remarkable for the uncommon frequency and violence of its eruptions. From a base 9 miles in circuit it rises to the elevation of 1300 yards above the level of the Mediterranean, and stands about 8 miles east from the city of Naples in the midst of a fine fertile plain. To the ascending visitant it exhibits a dreary aspect ; its sides being overspread, beside other volcanic matter, with heaps of stones calcined by fire, burnt earth, and melted minerals in various forms and in several stages from a state of liquefaction to that

nines. This is certainly an error, as Virgil, who is always exact in his geographical descriptions, gave reason to suspect, when he put these words into the mouth of Æneas concerning this part of Italy.

Cum semel obscuros colles, humilemque videmus,

Italiam. Æneis 3, line 522. Swinburne, vol. 1, Dublin, 1783, p. 213.

* Swinburne, vol. 1, p. 21 of the Introduction.

† Swinburne, vol. 1, p. 151.

of

of hardness. These melted minerals are denominated lava, both when they are in a state of fusion and after they are hardened into solid masses. Three summits are assigned to this volcano; Vesuvius properly so called on the south; Somma on the north; and Ottaiano in the middle; but the two latter, particularly the last, have long ago been greatly diminished by the convulsions which they have sustained. The volcano at present appears, at least in some points of view, like a steep mountain placed on another of gradual ascent. The peak or highest part of Vesuvius, which from its convulsive nature has undergone many changes, rises in form of a cone, and is of extremely difficult ascent, being covered with loose stones and ashes, in which the foot sinks at every step. In its top is a circular hollow, three or four hundred yards in diameter, shelving inward in form of a cup, whence it has obtained the name of *crater*. From this hollow issues an almost incessant smoke, frequently flames, and from the side of the cone bursts a torrent of lava at least every year. At much greater irregular intervals an eruption takes place, when, with commonly a prelude of earthquakes in the neighbouring parts, the mountain, convulsed throughout, utters the most hideous noises, sometimes like deep hollow dismal groans, and sometimes like thick volleys of the heaviest artillery; disgorges from its crater columns of smoke and flame immense as the mountain itself; throws aloft into the air vast quantities of red hot stones and other fiery matter; and pours from its overboiling crater,

crater, or from its riven sides, whole rivers of liquid fire, or red flaming lava, which bring horrible devastation to the plain below*. History records several of the most desolating eruptions, among which are those which happened in the years of the Christian Era 79, 1631, and 1767.

Volcanic
phenomena,

But Vesuvius, which must be acknowledged to be by far the most active and terrible, is by no means the only volcanic symptom exhibited by these regions of southern Italy. In many places craters of extinct volcanos, a soil quite cineritious†, heaps of cinders, and vast masses of lava, are extant marks of former ignivomous mountains and former eruptions; whilst frequent earthquakes, hot boiling springs, hot sulphureous vapors, and other phenomena, evince the present action of subterraneous fires. Among the boiling springs is one called the Bulicame, near Viterbo, in the Pope's territories, a circular well 60 feet in diameter and of a great depth, the water of which is in a state of perpetual ebullition‡. Another may be mentioned which has its place beneath the surface of the sea, about 60 yards from the shore at a place called Saint Angelo between the towns of Ischia and Furia, where a column of boiling water bubbles on the surface of the sea with great force, communicates its heat to the salt water around, and serves

* Dictionnaire Geographique & Historique de l'Italie, a Paris, 1777, tom. 2, from p. 657 to 662. Swinburne, vol. 1, from p. 52 to 58.

† Swinburne, vol. 1, p. 86 and 103, vol. 2. p. 465.

‡ Sir William Hamilton's Letter to Sir Joseph Banks in the Ann. Reg. for 1786.

as a natural cauldron for the fishermen to boil their fish *. In many spots about the shores of this island the sand at the bottom of the sea is so hot as to be intolerable to the touch †. The same is the case in several other places, as about the shores of the ancient town of Baiæ where also are hot wells ‡.

The Solfatara, situate near the town of Puzzuoli Solfatara. nine miles from Naples, is considered as a half extinct volcano. Its present appearance is that of an elevated basin nearly circular, 400 yards in diameter, environed by an amphitheatre of low hills §. The surface or floor of this basin, white as chalk, and consisting of a kind of marly clay, emits, from numerous vent-holes, hot burning vapors, and a continual smoke, the quantity of which is augmented by falls of rain, but no flames have issued from it in the memory of the present generation. The ground quakes when trodden, and returns a hollow sound. Beneath the feet is heard the bubbling and hissing of hidden subterraneous waters in a boiling state. These waters have their vent on the northern side of the eminence, where, in a dark valley, a fetid burning stream bursts forth, and pursues its course to the lake of Agnano ||. The water of this lake, which is of a circular form about half a mile in diameter, bubbles incessantly, but

* Idem and ibidem.

† Idem and ibidem.

‡ Swinburne, vol. 2, p. 32.

§ Dictionnaire de l'Italie, tom. 2, p. 522. Swinburne, vol. 2, p. 40.

|| Swinburne, vol. 2, p. 40 and 41.

Grotta
Del Cane.

without any sensible heat*. On its northern shore is the famous Grotta Del Cane, or Cave of the Dog, a small cavern 10 feet long, 5 broad, and 6 in height, from the floor of which issues a mephitic vapor destructive of all animal life. To satisfy the cruel curiosity of visitants a dog, as being the most conveniently procured animal for the purpose, is dragged to the cave, and his nose held in the murderous vapor, which rises not more than two feet from the floor. The poor animal is quickly convulsed, and soon loses all appearance of life; but commonly recovers by being plunged in the lake†. It is said that in this vapor gunpowder cannot be made to take fire, and that a lighted torch is immediately extinguished by being immersed in it. Nor is the Solfatara of Puzzuoli the only volcanic spot of this kind exhibited in Italy. Another is at the distance of a mile from Venosa in the Neapolitan kingdom, resembling the former in all respects excepting that it is not encircled by hills. Innumerable streams flow from its sides, varying much in their color and mineral qualities‡.

Rivers
and
lakes.

Few parts of the earth are more copiously supplied with water than Italy in general. The vast mountainous ramparts, which on one side seclude this peninsula from the main continent, and on the other wind through its whole extent, give source to innumerable torrents, rivulets, and rivers. The uneven surface collecting the waters in basons, forms

* Dictionnaire de l'Italie, tom. 1, p. 19. Swinburne, vol. 2, p. 42. Moore's View. Dublin, 1781, vol. 3, p. 87.

† Dictionnaire de l'Italie, tom. 1, p. 550 and 551. Swinburne, vol. 2, p. 43.

‡ Swinburne, vol. 1, p. 414.

a great number of lakes variously extended, mostly imbosomed within mountains, but partly expanded in the plains. From the nature of the country the rivers are in general very rapid, and apt to swell in such a manner as to ravage with violent inundations the lands which border their channels, as they mostly derive their waters from lofty mountainous tracts, and run not a proportionate length of course. The heel of this boot-formed region is said to be destitute of rivers, as it is of mountains and almost destitute of rivulets; yet by subterraneous waters, or some other means, the soil is sufficiently supplied with moisture to render it fertile in a surprizing degree. The existence of subterraneous reservoirs seems to be evinced by the shallowness of the wells, and by the pools which appear wherever the level of the ground is low.*

Of all the Italian rivers, almost every one of which is celebrated in historic or poetic page, by far the greatest is the Po, called anciently Eridanus, which receiving in its channel a vast number of streams from the Appennines and the Alps, but much more from the former, rushes with a very rapid† and most beautifully majestic flood‡ to the Adriatic,

* Swinburne, vol. 1, p. 212.

† Eridanus, quo non alius per pinguia culta
In mare purpureum violentior influit amnis. Virg. Georg.

4. l. 373.

‡ Fired with a thousand raptures I survey
Eridanus through flowery valleys stray
The king of floods, which, rolling o'er the plains,
The towering Alps of half their moisture drains,
And proudly swoln with a whole winter's snows,
Distributes wealth and plenty where he flows.

ADDISON.

into

into which it disgorges its waters by several mouths, after a course of about 360 English miles, from what is regarded as its primary source, in those Alps which bound Piedmont on the west and separate that country from Dauphiné. This noble stream, which some poets have dignified with the title of king of rivers, is uncommonly violent in its inundations, which have often brought great damage to the country through which it runs*. Several of the auxiliar streams, which convey into its channel the Alpine waters, are intercepted by such depressions of the ground as to form many lakes of various magnitude. One of these is the lake of Garda, named anciently Benacus, formed by the river Mincio or Mincius, 35 miles long, 14 broad, partly closed by the Alps, and swelling by storms into billows like a sea.† The waters of the Adda, or Addua, are received in the lake of Como, the Larius of the ancients, above 30 miles long, 6 broad, overhung by the Alps for a considerable part of its extent, and forking toward the south into two bays or arms. Another filled by Alpine waters flowing to the Po is the Lago Maggiore, the Verbanus of the ancients, which receives and again discharges the waters of the river Tecino or Ticinus, and is bordered on two sides by rugged mountains, but elsewhere by charming plains or gently swelling lands. This lake seems not to differ greatly in size from that of Como. In three islands which it contains,

* Dictionnaire de l'Italie Tome 2. p. 328.

† Fluctibus et fremitu surgens, Benace, marino. Virg. Geor. 2, l. 160.

particularly

particularly Isola Bella or Beautiful Island, which seems not greatly to exceed a mile in circuit, the noble family of Borromeo have erected such edifices, and planted such gardens, as fill all visitants with rapture, as if they constituted a kind of terrestrial Elysium, or enchanted retreats.* These islands lie in a small gulph which the lake forms on the western side.

In the vast plains watered by the Po and other rivers some canals are made for the promotion of inland navigation, particularly by the Venetians and Milanese; but in other parts of Italy these conveniences are little known. Of the many Italian streams, which are received into the Adriatic to the north of the Po, the principal is the Adige or Athesis, which runs from the Alps of Tyrol a course mostly very rapid of above 200 miles. Southeastward of the Po the Adriatic receives a great number of rivers, which mostly run a short and rapid course from the Appennines. Of these I shall mention only the Ofanto or Aufidus, which rising far back in the Appennines, or nearer the coast of the Mediterranean than that of the Adriatic, pours a furious current to the latter, winding with a serpentine stream in length about 90 miles.†

* Piozzi's Travels. Dublin 1789. p. 469 and seq. Dict. de l'Italie vol. 1. p. 602 and seq. Description de l'Italie par l'Abbé Richard, a Dijon 1766. Tome 1. p. 282—289.

† Violens obstrepiit Aufidus. Horace. The Rubicon might be expected to be noticed among these rivers but it is so small a stream that its situation is not ascertained; some supposing it to be the Pisatello between Ravenna and Rimini, which seems more probable, and others the Lusa still nearer Rimini. See Moore's View, vol. 1. p. 222.

Among

Among the rivers which run from the Appennines to the Mediterranean is the rapid Voltorno or Vulturnus, and the slow and placid Garigliano or Liris. By the overflowing waters of the latter of these rivers are formed the marshes of Minturnæ so often mentioned in ancient history. But of those which run to this sea the two greatest are the Tivere, Tiber, or Tiberis, and the Arno or Arnus, which rise at no great distance each from the other in the Appennines, but, taking different courses, fall into the Mediterranean widely asunder; the former running a course of about 180 miles, the latter above 140. The violent floods, to which these, as most other Italian rivers are subject, are augmented by the river Chiana or Clanis, which, receiving in its bed innumerable torrents from the Appennines, divides into two channels, one of which discharges its waters into the Tiber, the other into the Arno.* An influent member of the Tiber is the Nar or Nera, rendered whitish by sulphur with which its waters are impregnated. This receives into its channel the river Velino, or Topino, originally a greater stream than itself, which, near its junction with the Nar, drops abruptly down a tremendous precipice said by some to be 300 feet deep, making one of the most beautiful cataracts in the world called from a town four miles from it the cascade of Terni. Great part of the stream is lost in vapor by its precipitation on rocks from so vast a height. It proceeds with diminished force to make two other cataracts, each of about the same height as the first, so that most

* Dict. de l'Italie Tome i. p. 82 and 290.

of it is dissipated in air before it meets with the Nar. The aggregate height of the three falls may perhaps be about eight hundred feet, but by the accounts of some writers it might be thought considerably greater. A cataract is also formed by the Tevere, anciently called Anio, another subsidiary stream of the Tiber, near Tivoli, falling from the height of near fifty feet; while several parts of the stream, diverted by rocks from the main channel, form beautiful cascades in their return, some of them about a hundred feet high.*

Of Italian rivers which disappear for a space and again issue from the ground, an instance is the Negro, anciently called Tanager or Tanagrus, which after gliding through the exuberant vale of Diano, a vale shaped like a shuttle near 20 miles long, enters, at the foot of some hills which enclose the valley on that side, some horizontal funnels, and oozing through beds of sand for the space of two miles, bursts forth with horrid noise in a spacious cavern called la Pertosa, from whence it pursues its course to the river Silari or Silarus, in whose channel its stream is absorbed and conveyed to the Mediterranean.†

Of the many lakes which lie among the Appennines the two greatest are those of Perugia and Celano. The former, famous in Roman story under the name of Thrasimenus, is described as of a shape

* Dict. de l'Italie Tom. 2 p. 625. Piozzi, p. 419 and 420. Martyn's Tour in Italy. London 1791. p. 127, 128, 260.

† Swinburne vol. 2. from p. 448 to 452.

somewhat

somewhat circular with a diameter of about 6 or 8 miles.* The latter denominated Fucinus by the ancients, is one of the most beautiful pieces of water in the world, embosomed in the most elevated part of the Appennine ridge, and encircled with mountains of sublime altitude. Its circuit is above 40 miles, its breadth from 4 to 10, and its depth of water on an average 12 feet; but it has greatly varied in these circumstances; for as it receives three considerable streams without having any other outlet than some unknown subterraneous passages, it is subject to irregular augmentations and diminutions. To prevent the ruin of the fine lands on its shores by the rising of its level, the emperor Claudius made a subterraneous canal to convey its superabundant water into the river Liris; a work which is said to have employed 30,000 men during 11 years, but being choked with rubbish is at present quite useless.†

The lake of Averno or Avernus, situate near the bay of Naples, ought, perhaps, notwithstanding its small extent of surface, to be noticed on account of its ancient renown. No longer overhung with mephitic exhalations, arising from its banks, which rendered it an object of gloomy superstitious horror to the ancients, it exhibits at present a pleasing scenery. It is of a circular figure, less than half an English mile in diameter‡, though said to be 720

* Dict. de l'Italie Tome 1. p. 621.

† Swinburne vol. 2. from p. 485 to 489. Letter from Sir William Hamilton to Sir Joseph Banks, An. Reg. 1786.

‡ Dict. de l'Italie Tome 1. p. 92 and 93.

yards deep, and environed with a gay amphitheatre of hills whose groves are strongly reflected by the dark blue surface of these unruffled waters*. Perhaps also it may be expected that a kind of lake, about 14 miles from Rome, known at present by the name of the Solfatara of Tivoli, but anciently denominated Lacus Albulus, may not be omitted, famous for its floating islands and petrifying quality. The water of this lake, and still more that of a rivulet which flows from the lake to the river Anio, encrusts in a few days with a hard white stony matter every substance which it touches. Its floating islands, a sort of phenomena by no means singular†, “are nothing
 “ else but bunches of bulrushes springing from a
 “ thin soil formed by dust and sand blown from the
 “ adjacent ground, and glued together by the bitu-
 “ men which swims on the surface of this lake, and
 “ the sulphur with which its waters are impregnat-
 “ ed. Some of these islands are 12 or 15 yards in
 “ length; the soil is sufficiently strong to bear 5 or
 “ 6 people, who, by the means of a pole, may move
 “ to different parts of the lake, as if they were in a
 “ boat‡.”

In many places in this volcanic region warm vapours ascend from the earth, and springs of water are found of almost all degrees of temperature. Many caverns and hollows whence warm exhalations

Baths.

* Swinburne vol. 2. p. 33 and seq.

† Small floating islands are found in lakes in several places; for instance in some lakes in the county of Cork in Ireland. See Smyth's history of Cork p. 275.

‡ Moore's View. vol. 3. letter 69.

arise, are used as vapor baths or sudatories, where patients for the cure of various diseases, excite copious perspirations from their bodies by the sultry vapor. Thus the baths of San Germano near the Grotta del Cane consist of four chambers filled with hot vapor which arises from the ground, and furnished with stone seats, on which the patients lie wrapt in blankets, suffering violent perspiration for the cure of the rheumatism, scurvy, and other diseases†. Among the medicinal waters of this Peninsula some celebrity is allowed to those of Pifa, one of whose fountains is said to resemble the British water of Cheltenham exactly in taste‡. But the most frequented of all by the ancients were the baths of Baiæ, where are vapor baths and springs of various degrees of warmth. Some of the former are too warm to be endured longer than a few moments; and some of the latter so heated as to boil an egg hard almost in an instant§.

Tempera-
ture and
seasons.

The Italian atmosphere is dry and clear; the sky almost all the year serene and bright; the temperature of its different territories very different, according to their various elevations and positions. In the territories which lie between the Appennines and the Alps, the cold of winter is sharp and severe, and the earth often covered with deep snow during two months or more without interruption. The frosts are still more keen, and the snow of

† Lady Miller's Letters on Italy. Dublin, 1776. vol. 2 p. 243.

‡ Piozzi. p. 253.

§ Swinburne. vol. 2. p. 30.

longer

longer duration, in the extensive range of the Appennine mountains, some of whose summits retain the snow in the midst of summer. In the countries which lie northward of the Appennines and border the Adriatic sea, the winter is less mild than in those which have a southern aspect between these mountains and the Mediterranean. In the latter the severity of winter is unknown; the snow scarcely rests an hour on the ground, and vegetation proceeds in an uninterrupted course; the orange, lemon, and other trees never ceasing to put forth in succession their leaves, blossoms, and fruit*. In these coasts of the Mediterranean, and some other parts of Italy, vast quantities of rain supply the place of frost and snow. With much variation in the different parts of these countries, the rains may be said in general to begin toward the end of September or in October, and to deluge the ground at intervals for several successive weeks, falling frequently with almost the violence of a water-spout. The water seems to pour from the clouds not in drops, but in streams: whole months of parching heat are compensated by the deluge of a day; and the south winds often blow in this season with such fury as to burst open the bolted doors and windows†. From a regular course of observations it has been found, that, though the rains are vastly less frequent in Italy than in Britain, yet, the quantity which falls on any given space of ground in the

* Barretti's Italy, vol. 2. p. 174—177. Dublin 1769.

† Swinburne, vol. 1. p. 66.

whole year is vastly greater in the former than in the latter †. Excepting in the most northern parts, the corn harvest begins in May: the mulberry leaves feed the silk worms in August, and the vintage is commonly in October §. The heats during the months of June, July, August, and even the greater part of September, are intense, and the parched earth no otherwise refreshed than by dews and tempests. The former are copious; the latter rare; but, when they come, they are altogether tremendous with peals of thunder, thick flashes of lightning, and torrents of rain. In these months the much dreaded *Scirocco* is sometimes felt, a southeasterly wind, which, like the *Solano* of Spain, is accompanied with a suffocating heat, and an excessive languor, dejection of spirits, and sometimes sickness in the inhabitants.

Productions.

So conducive to fertility are the dews, the rains, and doubtless also certain qualities in the soil itself of this noble peninsula, that, if the benignity of nature were fully seconded by the hand of industry, the quantity and variety of its productions would be prodigious. With in general a very imperfect culture it yields at least a sufficiency of grain and other vegetables for the consumption of its very numerous inhabitants. Two crops in the year, but in many places three, are the product of its genial soil. In the great extent of level country, denominated Lombardy, between the Appennine and the

† Smyth's History of Cork. Swinburne, vol. 1. p. 66.

§ Barretti, vol. 2. p. 176.

Alps, a crop of corn, another of silk, and another of wine, are taken every year from the same land; the vines being planted in rows with mulberry trees for their support, and the intervals sown with corn; a mode of culture which seems well adapted to the hot Italian atmosphere; the trees by their shade shielding the earth from the scorching rays of the sun, which must otherwise in some measure deprive it of its vegetative moisture. In many places three crops from three successive sowings or plantings are gathered within the year, as, for instance, one of beans, one of Turkey-wheat, and one of broccoli. Lands of this prolific nature are set at a high rent, even at some distance from great cities; for example, about Nocera in the kingdom of Naples, they are rented at the rate of 4l. 13s. or 5l. 16s. the English acre, or above 7l. 10s. or above 9l. the Irish acre||. Meadows whose natural fertility is augmented by artificial watering, which is much the custom in Lombardy, are mowed three times annually, and in good years no less than four or even five times*. Yet in the southern parts of the pope's dominions, such is the desert state of the country, some of the finest land in Italy may be purchased in fee for 4l. an acre†.

Great quantities of rice are raised in the low level parts of Italy, particularly in the Milanese territories, and other districts of Lombardy. Abun-

|| Swinburne, vol. 2. p. 102.

* Richard, tome. 2. p. 568. Lady Miller, vol. 1. p. 162.

† Temporal government of the pope. London, 1788. p. 231.

dance of the finest wheat is produced throughout the peninsula, and far more might be produced with a greater degree of industry. The culture of other kinds of grain, as maize, millet, and barley, is much less extensive, and confined to lands of a less fertile soil. Rye is sown on the Appennine ridge, at least that part of it which lies within Calabria, on such tracts as, by reason of their elevation, have not a sufficient warmth to bring wheat to perfection. Calavanfas, which are a kind of kidney-beans, are, with a variety of other vegetables, an object of Italian culture; but that excellent root, the potatoe, is as yet unknown in the southern parts of this country, and is rejected by the inhabitants when imported from abroad †. In many parts of Italy, particularly the southern, the flail is not used, but in its place, the grain is separated from the straw by the treading of cattle, or by a great rough stone dragged over the ends of the sheaves by a pair of oxen or buffaloes.

In the quantity, variety, and flavor of its fruits no country in Europe can vie with this peninsula. The oil of olives, in which it bears the pre-eminence over all other countries, at least in this part

† A strong instance of this is given in Barretti's account of Italy. A famine raging in Naples in the year 1764, potatoes were sent thither from Ireland, but found no purchasers, and the owners, in order to clear their ship for a freight of Italian goods, threw them overboard; none choosing to make use of them, even when they might have them for nothing, notwithstanding the severity of the famine. Barretti's Italy, vol. 2. p. 139, 140.

of the globe, is so much an object of Italian husbandry, that large tracts of land in many places are covered with olive trees in the manner of a forest; as about the town of Monopoli in the kingdom of Naples, where a wood of olives extends on three sides of the town to the distance of about twelve miles on each side *. Cherries grow to such a size, that some species of them seem to weigh near half an ounce each †; and, in years of uncommon plenty, the abundance of them is such, that, in some places, the owners, unable to find a market for them, even at no considerable distance from great cities, give them for nothing to all those who chuse to take the trouble of carrying them away ‡. It is useless to particularize all the species of Italian fruits, as oranges, lemons, figs, and others: Many sorts of excellent wine are made in great quantity throughout the country; and the Appennine heights, where the cold is too great for the finer kinds of fruit, abound in chestnuts, a production of not less utility, as constituting a considerable proportion of the food used by the lower classes of the people.

Beside those which are valued on account of their fruit, many trees and plants, useful in other respects, are the growth of this luxuriant region. Among these are the cotton shrub, the mulberry tree, and the manna-ash. The cotton shrub, of

* Swinburne, vol. 1. p. 206.

† Piozzi, p. 193.

‡ An instance of this is given in Swinburne. vol. 2. p. 102.

that

that kind which resembles the raspberry plant, is cultivated in several parts of the kingdom of Naples. The mulberry tree flourishes under the hand of the Italian husbandman in very extensive plantations; the white sort in some parts, as in the principality of Piedmont; the red in others, as in the Neapolitan kingdom. In this kingdom, which contains about a third of the area of all the peninsula, the quantity of silk produced yearly on an average is estimated at 800,000 pounds weight, but might, if the subjects were less oppressed by the government, be increased to twice as much §. That of Piedmont, which principality equals not in area half the above kingdom, seems to amount to about 600,000. Hence a loose conjecture may be made that the annual quantity of silk furnished by all Italy, exclusively of its islands, may amount to above three millions of pounds weight, and is capable of being greatly augmented.

Manna.

The higher parts of the great Appennine chain, especially towards the south, are covered, in a considerable proportion, with noble forests of oak and other kinds of timber, but of the forest trees that which particularly merits notice is the ornus, or small-leaved flowering ash, whence the manna is procured. This tree, which is also the growth of Spain, Sicily, and some other countries, is peculiarly an object of attention in the Neapolitan province of Calabria. It grows spontaneously on the lower parts of the Calabrian Appennines, and meets

§ Swinburne, vol. 1. p. 75.

with no other culture than that the wood-men cut away from it all the strong stems, or such as grow to the thickness of a man's leg. "Toward the end of July the gatherers of manna make a horizontal gash, inclining upward, in the bole of the tree. As the liquor never oozes out the first day, another cut is given in the second, and then the woodman fixes the stalk of a maple leaf in the upper wound, and the end of the leaf in the lower one, so as to form a cup to receive the gum as it exsils from each gash ||."

From the exuberant productions of its soil Italy Animals. gives food to an uncommonly great number of birds, and quadrupeds. Its pastures are rich to an extraordinary degree, but from want of encouragement the benefit thence arising is in general far less than what might be expected. The neat cattle are mostly white or of a grey color, while almost all the hogs and buffaloes are black, and even great part of the goats and sheep are black or brown. The hogs are not only black, but in some parts, as in Calabria, quite destitute of hair, and sleek as the elephant. The buffaloe, an animal of the cow-kind, but constituting a quite distinct and separate species, performs the functions of the ox, and is found in large herds, particularly in the marshy part of the country; these animals being very fond of wallowing in water or mud, especially in the scorching heats of summer, when they immerse themselves all to the end of the nose, and thus se-

cure themselves against the stings of winged insects which at that season swarm in low moist places. Considerable quantities of cheese are made of goats milk, as well as that of cows, throughout this peninsula. The inhabitants of even the small Milanese district of Lodi alone, are said to export cheese annually to the value of about 70,000*l.* and to make some of their cheeses, which are the best of what is called Parmesan, of such a size as to weigh 500 pounds each*. The Italian horses, particularly those of the Neapolitan territories, have been held in high estimation, but their breed is neglected, and the hardy mule, which here, as in Spain, grows to a large size, is much used in their place for the saddle and other purposes†. A few camels are found in some parts of the country, but in general they are so rare as to be exhibited for a shew in many places, in the same manner as in Britain.

In the mountainous parts of Italy is used, in the same employments as the mule, an animal perhaps elsewhere unknown, hardy, and surefooted, called the Gimerro or Jumart, which at first sight is hardly distinguishable from the mule in its external appearance, but is of a different though similar origin, being the heterogeneous offspring of a bull and a mare, of a horse and a cow, or of an ass and a cow‡.

* Martyn, p. 84.

† Barretti's Italy, vol. 2. p. 187—190, 193.

‡ Barretti's Italy, vol. 2. p. 190—193.

The sheep, which seem on the whole neither very numerous nor furnished with the finest wool, are said to bear good fleeces in some territories, as in that of Padua, and form very large flocks in others, particularly in Abruzzo and Apulia, where the management of great part of them is similar to that of the ambulatory Spanish flocks; the shepherds keeping them in the lofty Appennines of Abruzzo during the five warmest months of the year, and in the hot plains of Apulia during the other seven, that is, from some time in October to about the same time in May. For the accommodation of these flocks the government of Naples, in consideration of certain taxes paid by the shepherds, furnishes pastures in Apulia to the extent of 60 Italian miles in length and 30 in breadth, capable of feeding 1,200,000 sheep; but the ancient proprietors of the lands, from whom the government purchased this pasturage for seven months annually, have the disposal of the grass during the five summer months in which the sheep are absent in the mountains of Abruzzo §.

Herds of wild deer are said to subsist in the Appennine forests and in the plains of Apulia. Wild swine, or, as they are more commonly called, wild boars, are numerous in the woods and marshes. Of the feathered race, both such as remain all the year in the country, and such as by annual migration visit it from other regions, the numbers are so great as to be somewhat surprizing. Blackbirds,

§ Swinburne, vol. i. p. 139—144.

thrushes,

thrushes, beccaficos, and various other birds of small size, swarm among the vast plantations of fruit trees, and are killed in great quantities on account of their flesh, to a fondness for which the Italians have had always an uncommon propensity. Stock-doves, quails, and other migratory birds, visit Italy every year in vast numbers, and the taking of them constitutes the chief rural sport of the Italian gentry. For this end lofty slender turrets, like cylindrical pillars with small capitals or caps, are erected on sequestered eminences, around which stand at proper distances rows of trees planted for the purpose, and nets extending from tree to tree are fixed in such a manner that by means of pulleys they fall in a heap by the least effort. A man who sits on the top of the turret, when he sees a flock of doves near enough his post in their flight, hurls a stone over them by a sling with wonderful dexterity, which causes them to dart down like lightning and direct their flight beneath the tops of the trees, where they dash against the nets, which instantly fall and so entangle them that hardly any escape*. The numbers of birds taken in this and other ways are surprizingly great; for instance, in the small island of Capri, not above four miles long, on the coast of Naples, 160,000 quails, beside other birds, have been netted in one year; even 43,000 have been caught in one day, and in the worst years 12,000 at least are taken†. Smaller birds are entrapped

* Swinburne, vol. 2. p. 132.

† Swinburne, vol. 2. p. 5.

in their migratory flights in the same manner, excepting that they are previously enticed to the area enclosed with nets and trees, called the *roccolo*, by the voices of other small birds, which are confined in cages in the area for that purpose, and which occasionally are made to raise a cry at the sight of a tame owl †.

Of all the insect race in this peninsula a large species of spider called the Tarantula has been rendered the most famous by fables propagated concerning it. It was supposed to be venomous, particularly in Apulia, where it was believed to infuse by its bite into the human blood a poison of so very strange malignancy, that music was the only cure. Certain tunes were believed to throw the patient into involuntary fits of the most violent dancing, and it was supposed that the venom was thereby expelled; but in modern times the tarantula is considered as a harmless animal, and the whole business a trick, which long deceived the learned, and still continues to deceive the vulgar §.

The seas which wash the coasts of Italy and its islands are copiously stocked with fish. Those marine animals which are called crustaceous and testaceous fishes, such as crabs and lobsters, oysters and scollops, are taken in great quantities in the harbour of Taranto, and in the numerous bays and creeks throughout the extensive line of the Italian coast. Beside sword-fish, dolphins, pelamides, and

† Barretti's Italy, vol. 2. p. 153—156.

§ Swinburne, vol. 1. p. 399—403.

a great variety of other fish, vast shoals of tunnies make their annual visit after the vernal equinox, coasting Italy and its islands toward the seas of Greece, and are caught, especially in May and June, in the narrow passes of the sea, particularly in the Faro of Messina, in such quantities as to constitute the chief part of the animal food used by the subjects of the king of Naples, beside a great consumption in many places elsewhere ||.

Fossils.

Whatever may belong to the mineral kingdom in this peninsula, no great advantage accrues thence to its inhabitants, who in general give little attention to the subterraneous riches of their country. Quarries of excellent marble abound in the Appennines, especially near Massa Carrara in the Tuscan state. The same great chain is in many places replete with iron ore, and that part of it which runs through the kingdom of Naples is said to contain much ore of copper and silver; but few mines are opened, or worked to any considerable advantage. These volcanic regions are full of sulphur, and large quantities of it are collected in some places, as, for instance, in the Solfatara of Puzzuoli already described, where sheds are erected for the purpose, and tiles, placed over the vent holes of the smoke, serve as chemical retorts, for the collection not only of sulphur, but also of sal ammoniac

|| Swinburne, vol. 2. p. 150—152, and 399 and 400. The tunny is a very large fish, classed with the mackerel under the denomination of scomber. One which was seen by Mr. Pennant, taken on the coast of North Britain, weighed 460 pounds.

and

and condensed alum *. In the Calabrian Appennines are said to be several hills of fossil salt, but the mines remain unopened and useless to the inhabitants †. Great quantities however of salt are made, in the same manner as in Spain, from sea-water received into shallow ponds within the shores, and exposed to the fierce beams of the sun.

The different parts of Italy being under different governments, and the encouragements or discouragements of industry not every where the same, the state of commerce is various; more or less passive in the greater part of the peninsula, as in the kingdom of Naples and the Pope's dominions; more or less active in others, as in the Genoese and Venetian territories. Many kinds of manufactures meet with some degree of attention among the Italians, but few to any considerable extent or national advantage. The greatest and most extensive is that of silk, of which large quantities are exported wrought, but much also is sent unwrought to foreign nations: thus about half of what is produced in the kingdom of Naples, which half is supposed to be but little under or over 400,000 pounds weight, is sent out of the country in its raw state ‡. A manufacture of very small extent or importance may perhaps deserve notice on account of its rarity. The Pinna Marina, a bivalved shell-fish of the muscle tribe, frequently exceeding two feet in length, and

* Swinburne, vol. 2. p. 4. Dictionnaire de l'Italie, tome. 2.
p. 524.

† Swinburne, vol. 1. p. 77.

‡ Swinburne, vol. 1. p. 75.

found in the bays and creeks of southern Italy, particularly in the harbour of Taranto, is furnished by nature with a large tuft of silky filaments, or threads, which it throws out to float in the waters, in order to allure small fish and insects which it makes its prey. These filaments, called *lanapenna*, are, after undergoing a preparation which reduces them to less than a fifth of their original weight, fabricated into stockings, gloves, caps, and waistcoats, of a beautiful yellow brown, resembling burnished gold, or rather that bright color which is seen on the backs of some species of flies or beetles §. Mirrors and various other forms of glass are still supplied by the Venetians to several foreign countries, but the quantity now exported is supposed not to be above half of what Venice formerly sent abroad, before the French and Britons found the method of manufacturing glass at home. Among the exports of Italy, beside the silk and glass already mentioned, are excellent oil in great quantities, wine, fresh and dried fruits, manna, cheese, particularly that of the Parmesan and Milanese territories, brimstone, marble, paste, and macaroni of various kinds. How the balance of trade between Italy and foreign countries may stand on the whole amount, cannot from what materials are furnished be ascertained, but with respect to the British islands it is much in favor of this naturally rich peninsula; the goods sent annually from Italy to Britain amounting to above 680,000 pounds in value, while those

§ Swinburne, vol. i. p. 250 and 251.

which

which Italy receives in return rise but little above the value of 510,000l. ||

The figure of this peninsula is not less unfavour-^{Area.} able than those of many other countries for the making of a calculation concerning its Area; nor has any map of it as yet appeared, on the accuracy of which we can rely. Measured in the utmost extent which can be allowed, in a crooked line, from Cape Spartivento to the extremity of Savoy, it may have a length of above 800 English miles; but its dimensions ought to be taken in right lines, and its greatest length thus considered from Cape Rizzuto to the summits of the Alps will be found to be about 700 English or 550 Irish miles. Its breadth from the Adriatic directly across to the Mediterranean varies from about 180 to 80 of the former kind of miles, or from above 140 to 63 of the latter, but across those parts which are called the foot and heel, the breadth is far less, in one place not above 16 English miles. By a rough calculation we may suppose its area to contain above 52 millions of English, or above 32 millions of Irish acres. The number of its inhabi-^{Popula-} tants seems not less than 16 millions, which, though tion. it cannot be said to be small in proportion to the area, is yet not half of what might draw sustenance from this prolific region. Their distribution is less inequable than that which is observed in Spain and some other countries, yet some striking inequalities are in this respect also to be found; some territories

|| Custom-house accounts laid before the British House of Commons in 1787.

being

being extremely populous, as those of Genoa, Lucca, and several others in the north; others very thinly peopled, as many parts of the Ionian coast, and the Campagna of Rome.

Aspect.

Notwithstanding some considerable defects, Italy collectively viewed is certainly one of the most beautiful regions on our globe. Here in a climate of a happy temperature, beneath a sky delightfully serene and clear, streams without number, descending from the heights to the seas around, meander through variously extending plains and vallies, which strike the senses with all the charms of exuberant fertility, and are terminated by majestic ranges of mountains, whose sides are clothed with stately forests interrupted and contrasted here and there with naked rocks. In a rich glow of landscape we can scarcely imagine any tract of the earth to surpass the cultivated parts of this peninsula; shaded with woods of olive, orange, almond, citron, and other fruit trees, the varied colorings of whose fruits and leaves exhibit to the eye a picture of extraordinary beauty; or covered with vines and intermingled corn; the corn occupying the spaces between strait rows of tall elms, poplars, or mulberry trees, on which the vines lean as their support, and extend their luxuriant branches from tree to tree in the most beautiful wreaths or festoons; the smell, meantime, voluptuously regaled with a variety of grateful odors, which arise to perfume the air from herbs, flowers, or fruits; while amid these vivid groves and scenes of lavish fertility, the numerous villages and towns, which are generally built

built on eminences, rise to the view, and those magnificent cities, whose superb edifices, together with their exquisite paintings, statues, and venerable monuments of antiquity, are the admiration of Europe*.

Plains, however, of rather a naked, but not a barren, aspect are to be found in some parts of this peninsula, particularly in Apulia, where a person may travel many miles without meeting with any shelter to shield him from the broiling heats of summer†. Widely spread plantations also, we must confess, in the extensive plains of Italy, especially in Lombardy, though they at first by their richness astonish and delight, yet, after a little familiarity, grow rather dull and fatiguing to the view, from the sameness of the objects, and the too great quantity of wood, which precludes all prospect‡. But the flatness of plains, and the sameness of objects are by no means the predominant features of Italian landscape. The country is in general uneven, and the scenery varied without end. "Wild dashes of rock often break the uniformity

* A very ingenious and learned gentleman, who travelled much, but never published any account of his travels, assured me that he was so enraptured with the rich prospects in Italy, that he was more than once tempted to fall on his knees, and arise his hands in extacy to Heaven, to thank God for his bounty to man. See also Swinburne, vol. 1. p. 135, 302, 362, 363. vol. 2. p. 464, &c. Richard, tome 1. p. 193. tome 3. preface, p. 5—8.

† Swinburne, vol. 1. p. 137, 162

‡ Swinburne, vol. 1. p. 96. Piozzi, p. 487. Richard, tome.

3. Preface, p. 1.

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of the green forest; villages, convents, and villas appear seated in the angles of the mountains;" and, among a multitude of other objects, the slender turrets, erected on commanding points for the catching of birds, add somewhat to the variety and beauty of the whole §. Even the seas, which wash this favored region, wear an aspect which an inhabitant of the north of Europe may not very readily conceive; their smooth, clear, azure waters, particularly in the bays on the coast of Naples, reflecting, like a mirror, vast masses of superimposing rock, rich groves, and other objects of those delightful shores ||.

But

§ Swinburne, vol. 2. p. 107. See also Moore's View, vol. 3. letter 70.

|| Swinburne, vol. 2. p. 49. The beauties of Italy have been celebrated by many poets from Virgil to the present time. I take the liberty of inserting here a few lines on the subject from my countryman Goldsmith.

Far to the right where Appennine ascends,
Bright as the summer Italy extends.
Her uplands sloping deck the mountain's side,
Woods over woods in gay theatric pride;
Where oft some temple's mouldering tops between
With venerable grandeur mark the scene.

Could nature's bounty satisfy the breast,
The sons of Italy were surely blest:
Whatever fruits in different climes are found
That proudly rise, or humbly court the ground:
Whatever blooms in torrid tracts appear,
Whose bright succession decks the varied year,
Whatever sweets salute the northern sky
With vernal blooms that blossom but to die;

These

But in all the pomp of landscape, which Italy displays, the philanthropic traveller has often to lament that the encouragement of the artizan is, beyond all due proportion, greater than that of the peasant who cultivates the soil, and that while cities, churches, and palaces, are embellished with all the power of art, the husbandman is oppressed and agriculture languishes; hence misery dwells by the side of magnificence, and deserts approach the most proudly decorated cities, particularly Rome. Such a neglect of agriculture, however, as is accompanied with a paucity of inhabitants, is not to be supposed general in this prolific region. It is chiefly observed in the Pope's dominions, and in the kingdom of Naples, particularly in the coasts of the Ionian sea. In both these realms are seen large tracts of excellent land, not only waste, but, in their present condition, scarcely habitable; their marshes and stagnant waters, derived from overflowing rivers or springs, infecting the air with noxious vapors; which waters, by being conducted in proper channels, might be made to contribute much to fertility, beauty, and population*.

The cities of Italy are uncommonly splendid, Towns adorned with magnificent churches, palaces, and

These here disporting own the kindred soil,
Nor ask luxuriance from the planter's toil;
Whilst sea-born gales their gelid wings expand,
To winnow fragrance o'er the smiling land.

Goldsmith's Traveller.

* Moore's View, vol. 2. letter 35, 53, 54. Swinburne, vol. 1. p. 280, 296, 362. Dictionnaire de l'Italie, &c.

other structures; in the building and embellishing of which the excellent marble quarries of the Apennine have been of great utility. In its numerous churches Italy has no rival, superbly decorated, as they are, by the hands of the ablest painters, architects, and sculptors. Aqueducts and fountains for the supplying of water contribute at once to the ornament and accommodation of the Italian cities; but the porticos, which are also found in some, though they serve as a defence against hot sunshine, and rain, detract somewhat, in several instances, from the beauty of the streets to which they belong. Some of these cities are to be selected and briefly described according to the contracted plan of this work.

Rome.

In the midst of a naked, silent, and desert plain, bounded on one side by the Mediterranean, and on the other by chains of hills which seem to form, as it were, a beautiful amphitheatre crowned with towns, villages, and villas, stands the most renowned city of Rome in melancholy majesty, at the distance of 16 miles from the sea, and about 12 from the amphitheatre of hills above mentioned, on an uneven ground consisting chiefly of seven small hills, or eminences of little elevation, on both sides of the river Tiber, over which, besides two others of an inferior kind, is erected the magnificent bridge of Saint Angelo, consisting of 5 arches, and ornamented with a balustrade and statues. The greater part of the modern city is built on the ancient Campus Martius. The whole circuit of Rome may somewhat exceed 12 or 13 English miles, but not much
above

above a third part of the included area is supposed to be occupied by streets and houses; far more than half being covered with vineyards, gardens, and ruins. The number of its inhabitants amounts to about 170,000, of whom 7000 are said to be Jews. The principal streets, of which that which bears the name of the Corso is the most frequented, are long, spacious, and strait; but, as neither these nor any others are lighted with lamps, all Rome would be quite dark at night, were it not that some devout people keep candles burning before certain statues of the Blessed Virgin.

The inferior streets and houses of this city are mean enough, and Rome, taken all together in one view, is a motley composition of magnificent and beggarly, interesting and vulgar objects. But the magnificent and interesting, which consist of churches, palaces, and monuments of antiquity, are such as to render this metropolis of Italy, and seat of the supreme pontiff, the center of excellence in all things which regard architecture, painting, and sculpture. The master pieces of these arts are so numerous, that a description of them would fill many volumes, and a year's residence of a stranger is hardly sufficient to visit and survey them all with attention. The palaces are the property of various noble families, excepting three which belong to the Pope. That, of these three, which is joined to the church of Saint John Lateran, is but occasionally inhabited by his Holiness; that which is built on the Quirinal-hill, or Monte Cavallo, is his usual residence in summer, and is said to contain no fewer

fewer than 1700 rooms or apartments; but the Vatican, his chief palace, built on an eminence on the western bank of the Tiber, contiguous to Saint Peter's church, whence is an ascent by great stairs, is an immense and most sumptuous, but irregular structure, comprehending 22 courts, and above 4000 apartments*. The most curious and valuable of its buildings is its library, constructed nearly in the form of the letter T, and containing the richest collection of books in the world, a collection which is said to consist of near 80,000 volumes. The palace of the Vatican communicates by a covered way, or vaulted passage, with the castle of Saint Angelo, a famous fortress which commands the city, but which is incapable of withstanding the regular attacks of an army according to the present mode of warfare†.

St. Peter's
Church.

Of the 300 churches, which contribute with the palaces and other superb structures to the splendor of this most celebrated metropolis, that of Saint John Lateran is the first in dignity, as being the metropolitan church of the supreme Pontiff; but that which is dedicated to Saint Peter may fairly be pronounced, when considered in all points at once, to be the noblest pile of building in the world. How its magnitude may appear to an observer, who approaches it, we may endeavour to conceive from

* Some say above 12,000 chambers, of which 6000 are habitable lodging rooms.

† For an account of Rome, See Dictionnaire de l'Italie, under the article Rome, Vatican, &c. Moore's View, vol. 2. letters 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41. Richard, tome 5. all through.

its

its vast dimensions, which are greater than those of Saint Paul's cathedral in London; its length, taken on the outside, being 704 feet; its breadth 493; and its height from the pavement to the top of the cross, which crowns the cupola, 435. As the observer advances to examine the immense fabric, he enters a great area of an oval form, perhaps never equalled in magnificence by any area placed before a building, in the middle of which stands, on a high pedestal, a most majestic Egyptian obelisk of granite 72 feet in height, without reckoning that of the pedestal below and the cross above, all which together make an elevation of near 130 feet above the pavement. Two very beautiful fountains, at equal distances from the obelisk, one on each side, incessantly play, and refresh the air with streams of clear water. The area is enclosed by a splendid piazza, or colonnade crowned with a balustrade, ornamented with a great number of statues. The colonnade consists of four rows of stately pillars above 40 feet high, which form three walks leading to a square court in the front of the church. The end of this court, which is contiguous to the oval, and opposite to the church, is open; but its two sides are formed by two magnificent porticos, which conduct to the great stair-case, extending the whole breadth of the court, and composed of 24 marble steps, which forms the ascent to the entrance of this astonishing temple. The inside lined with the most precious marble, and adorned with all the powers of painting and sculpture, presents to the eye such a multitude of beautiful objects, that scarcely

scarcely any room can be conceived for the reception of more, yet disposed with such consummate art that none seem superfluous. So dazzled is the sight with the profusion and variety of riches and ornaments, that 120 great lamps of solid silver, which flame incessantly night and day around the great altar, almost escape the observation of the visitant, being, as it were, lost in the general blaze of decoration. In the building and embellishing of this unparalleled structure above 100 years were spent during the reigns of several successive Popes, and a sum of money probably exceeding eleven millions of British pounds expended. Notwithstanding its enormous size, its characteristics are airy lightness and exquisite elegance, not gloomy greatness or heavy solidity. Perhaps its only defect may be, that it appears not at first view to be of so vast a magnitude as it really is, and consequently strikes not the spectator immediately with all that idea of sublimity which might be expected from its prodigious dimensions †.

Bologna.

The second city in magnitude and population in the Pope's dominions, next after Rome, is Bologna, which is also accounted the second city in the world, next after the same, in respect of paintings and the works of sculpture, especially the former. It is situate about 180 miles northwest of Rome, within

† Moore, vol. 2. letter 37. Piozzi, p. 378—381. Dictionnaire de l'Italie, tome 2. p. 446—458. Richard, tome 5. p. 313—354. Lady Miller's Travels, vol. 2. p. 142—145. The dimensions are taken from Lalande.

about

about 8 miles of the foot of the Appenine, and near the river Rheno, in a plain so exuberantly fertile as to have procured to this city among the Italians the title of Bologna the Fat. It is handsomely and regularly built, but the streets are too narrow for the porticos with which they are lined, and it is said to have on the whole, rather a melancholy than a lively appearance. It probably contains little less than 80,000 souls; it has a circuit of 5 or 6 miles, and is environed with a simple wall of brick, without a ditch or other fortifications. Bologna from its oblong figure is said to resemble a ship, of which the main-mast is represented by the old brick tower of Asinelli, 330 feet high, built in the beginning of the twelfth century §.

Ferrara, another city in the Pope's dominions, Ferrara environed with a wall and ditches, and remarkable among the Italian cities chiefly for its very thin population in proportion to its magnitude, stands at the distance of near 30 miles from Bologna, on a small influent stream of the Po, called Po Morto, in a level country of great fertility, but of an unwholesome air, by reason of neglected marshes and other stagnant waters. Though large and beautiful, with lofty houses and wide strait streets, it is so ill stocked with inhabitants, whose number has gradually lessened since the year 1597, when it fell under the dominion of the Pope, that grass grows in its streets, and it is even said by some to con-

§ Dictionnaire de l'Italie, tome 1. 156—164. Moore's View, vol. 1. letters 27, 28. Richard, tome 2. p. 53, 54.

tain more houses than people; while others assign to it a population of near 15,000 ||.

Padua.

A city also of decayed population, though under a different government, as being situate in the Venetian territories, is Padua, which once could boast of 100,000 inhabitants, but at present is supposed to contain but 30,000, so that, as at Ferrara, but in a less degree, grass grows from the interstices between the stones with which the streets are paved. It is seated 25 miles from Venice, on the rivers Brenta and Bacchilione, in a very fertile plain bordered with hills. It consists of two principal parts, the old and new town; the latter built round the former in the manner of suburbs, and each enclosed with a wall. The whole may be about 8 miles in circumference, but great part of the space within is waste, many houses are deserted, and the streets are too narrow for the height of the buildings and for the porticos, all which contribute to give it an air of sadness or gloom. Among its buildings is the town-house, where the courts of justice are held, on the second floor of which is the hall of audience, remarkable for its vast dimensions, being a single room, not supported by pillars, 300 feet long, 100 broad, and near 100 high; its ceiling adorned with astronomical and other paintings*.

Venice.

At the bottom, or norwestern part of the great Adriatic gulf is formed what is called by some

|| Dictionnaire de l'Italie, tome 1. p. 432—435. Piozzi, p. 166. Richard, tome 2. p. 153.—160.

* Dictionnaire de l'Italie, tome 2. p. 215—221. Moore, vol. 1. letters 23, 24. Richard, tome 2. p. 505—519.

kind

kind of inner gulf, or rather a shallow barred bay, separated from the main Adriatic by a chain of islands and sand-banks, which breaks the force of winds and waves, so as to render the bay within comparatively tranquil, and secure from the violence of storms. This portion of sea is called the Lagune, or Lakes, by the Italians, though it is only one continued tract of water, and has a very uneven bottom, consisting mostly of innavigable shallows, between which are many winding navigable channels. In the midst of this uncommonly circumstanced watery space, at the distance of 4 or 5 miles from the chain of islands above mentioned, and as many from the main land of Italy, stands the most celebrated city of Venice, built on about 150 islets, which are joined together by bridges, forming from the singularity of its situation an extraordinary object of curiosity, for it appears as if it had emerged from the bosom of the deep, and presents to the approaching mariner the semblance of a floating city. Hence it has been compared to a ship of immense magnitude resting on the water and accessible only by boats*. Without walls, citadel, or any considerable fortifications, it is deemed impregnable, nor has an enemy attempted to besiege it during 13 centuries since its first foundation. Vessels can approach it only by the channels between the shallows which are unknown to strangers. Some of these channels are marked with rows of poles or stakes, but should an enemy advance to

* Ganganelli's letters.

make an attack, the removal of these marks would render the attempt abortive.

Venice is said to be six miles in circuit, and to contain 150,000 inhabitants, beside those who dwell on some small islands near it, particularly that of Murano, about a mile distant from the city, which is inhabited by about 20,000 people, among whom is a great manufacture of mirrors and other works of glass. The houses of Venice are founded on piles of wood sunk into the sea and islets on which this extraordinary city is built. Its streets are narrow, and so crooked, as to render it a kind of labyrinth almost inextricable to a stranger. A considerable part of the space comprised within the limits of Venice is occupied by canals, or rather embanked channels of the sea, which intersect it in all directions, and divide it into very many separate clusters of buildings. Some of these canals are faced on both sides with quays; others fill the entire space between the rows of houses, forming, as it were, streets of water, and washing the walls of the buildings to the height of 4 or 5 feet above their foundations; but as bridges are erected over the canals, and the houses have doors opening toward the streets as well as toward the water, a person may, by taking long circuits, go on foot from almost any one part of the town to another. The floors of the houses, instead of wood, are made of a brilliant glossy plaister of a red color. The principal apartments are on the second floor, the first being generally filled with lumber

The bridges consist of a single arch each without battlements, and as the town lies all low and level, they

they are ascended by steps of stairs, which are made of a hard white slippery kind of stone brought from Istria. In this marine city land-carriages are unknown, and horses, and other beasts of burden, are never seen, except when they are brought from the main-land to be exhibited as a shew. Boats called gondolas, of which above 10,000 are said to ply in the Venetian canals, many of them elegantly decorated, but all of them black, supply the place of coaches, sedans, and all such vehicles.

Of all the watery defiles, which intersect this wonderful city, by far the greatest and most beautiful is the Grand Canal, which, flanked on each side with magnificent palaces, churches, and spires, holds a serpentine course, nearly in form of the letter S, through the middle of Venice, dividing it into two almost equal parts. Over the middle, which is the narrowest part of this canal, stands the famous bridge called the Rialto, all built of white marble, and consisting of a single arch, 90 feet wide across the canal, 24 high, and 45 broad. It is furnished with battlements, but its beauty is much lessened by two rows of shops, which are built upon it, and divide its upper surface into three small streets.

The most beautiful part of Venice, and the only part of it which can be called a square, in the English signification of the word, is the place of Saint Mark, which is a kind of irregular quadrangular space, consisting of two places or squares, the whole 1100 feet in its utmost length, and surrounded with such buildings, all singular in their kind, and very different

different among themselves, as to constitute one of the noblest and most interesting squares in the world. On the southern side, where it opens to the sea, are two lofty pillars of granite, about 60 paces asunder, one of which has on its top the figure of a winged lion in brass, the other the statue of Saint Theodorus. Among the magnificent buildings which enclose this celebrated square, two may be noticed, the Ducal palace and the church of Saint Mark.

The Ducal palace, or palace of Saint Mark, is an immense quadrangular building, all of marble, and superbly decorated both within and without. This sumptuous edifice is not only the residence of the Doge, or supreme magistrate of the Venetian state, but contains also several halls and chambers, in which the senate, and the different councils and tribunals assemble. The lower gallery, or piazza under the palace, is called the Broglio, and serves as a place for walking, for conversation, and for the transacting of business, to the nobles of Venice, to whom it is appropriated.

In the northern part of the square the patriarchal church of Saint Mark presents itself to view, one of the richest and most extensive in the world, of nearly a square form, crowned with five domes, of which the middle is the highest and greatest. Over the principal of the five brazen gates which open in its front facing the palace, are the figures of four horses in gilt brass, of a most striking appearance and admirable workmanship, which were removed from Rome to Constantinople by Constantine

tine the Great, and thence to Venice, among other plunder, by the Venetians in the beginning of the thirteenth century. The church, both on the outside and on the inside, especially the latter, is inlaid, or incrusted, with marble of various colors, intermixed with other precious kinds of stone, so as to exhibit a most beautiful Mosaic work; but, on the whole, the decorations of this church, the fruit of vast expence and labor, are not disposed with such a taste as to produce a corresponding effect when surveyed by a traveller. The steeple, or belfry, of this church is quite separate from it and insulated as is the manner in Italy. It is a square tower of brick, standing in an angle of the square on the east of the church, 25 feet broad on each side, and rising to the height of 320 feet, including the figure of an angel at top, 18 feet high, of gilt copper, which serves as a weathercock, shewing with its hand the direction of the wind. The ascent of this tower inside is a spiral inclined plane of so easy a slope that a person may go up it all the way on horseback.

The arsenal of Venice is considered as an object of curiosity. It is a separate inclosure, east of the city, above two miles in circuit, surrounded with high walls, with one great entrance or door, and containing not only the military and naval stores of the state, but also the docks, gallies and other armed vessels. Ships of great burden cannot come so far as the city, and for the reception of such are chiefly the two inlets or harbours of Malamocco and

Lido, in the long chain of islands which shelters Venice*.

Mantua. Mantua, capital of a dutchy bearing the same name, once so populous as to contain near 60,000 inhabitants, but now hardly furnished with 15,000, is a large handsome city with wide strait streets, but remarkable at present only for its situation. Seated in an island environed by a lake which is formed by the river Mincio, it is accessible only by two causeways carried through the lake; a situation which, with its fortifications, renders it a place of extraordinary strength, but at the same time of an unwholesome air †.

Milan. Milan, bearing among the Italians the epithet of Great, and situate in a most fertile plain, twelve miles from the foot of the Alps, between the rivers Adda and Tecino, with which it has a navigable communication by canals, is of a circular form, and, in respect of magnitude, the second of the Italian cities, its circuit being near ten miles, but in respect of population not more than the third or fourth, the number of its inhabitants not much exceeding, perhaps not amounting to 140,000. The houses are lofty, and the streets broad, but the manner in which they are paved indicates an aristocratic spirit of government, the flag stones being

* For Venice see Moore's View of Italy, vol. 1. letters 2, 3, 4, and 5. Dictionnaire de l'Italie, tome 2. p. 628—640. Richard, tome 2. p. 244—399. Sharpe's Travels, Dublin 1767, p. 6—16.

† Dictionnaire de l'Italie, tome 2. p. 21—24. Richard, tome. 1. p. 296—307.

laid in two rows in each street merely in order that the wheels of carriages may glide smoothly over them, and only the rough pavement left for foot passengers. Milan is commanded by a citadel of a regular hexagonal form, standing to the north of the city, and is encompassed with walls, which are too extensive to be easily defended against a hostile army.

In the center of Milan rises the duomo or cathedral, accounted the greatest Gothic structure in the world, and the most considerable building in Italy next after the church of Saint Peter. It is 500 feet long, 200 feet broad without reckoning the projecting parts, and near 400 feet high; all seemingly built of solid white marble, but in fact built of brick and lined with that beautiful stone; crowded with some thousands of fine paintings and works of sculpture, and containing the richest treasury in Italy next after that of Loretto; but the decorations, though of immense value, seem not to be arranged to advantage, and the vast fabric cannot be said to have much more than a solemn sadness and gloomy dignity; neither is it yet completely finished, though the work has been in hands above three centuries past.

Milan also boasts of its Ambrosian library, one of the most valuable in the world; but the number of its books, which are said to consist of 86,000, including 14,000 manuscripts, seems to be exaggerated. In this city is also a vast and elegant theatre, capable of containing commodiously 4000 spec-

tators *. Among the objects in the neighbourhood of this city is the house of the Marquis of Simonetta, at the distance of two miles, which is said to give so extraordinary an echo, that the last syllable of a word is repeated about 40 times.

Turin

In an angle formed by the confluent streams of the Po and the smaller of the two rivers which bear the name of Doria, and toward the high western point of the immense triangular valley which is comprehended between the Appennines, the Alps, and the Adriatic, stands, in a delightful situation, Turin the capital of Piedmont, and residence of the Sardinian monarch, one of the most beautiful cities of all Italy. In its figure it approaches a circle or oval, and has been compared to a star with rays, its principal streets, all broad and strait, with fine lofty uniform houses, diverging from the middle space with great regularity, inso-much that from the central point they may be seen at once, each terminating with some beautiful view. It has four noble gates. It is supposed to contain near 70,000 inhabitants, though it has but about three miles of circuit. It is strongly fortified, and its citadel, which is a regular pentagon, is accounted one of the best fortresses in Europe. Among a number of sumptuous edifices, which adorn this most elegant city, is a very splendid palace of the king; and among the ornaments of its environs

* For Milan see Dict. de l'Italie, tome 2. p. 76—83. Moore, vol. 3. letter 79. Piozzi, p. 55—68. Bonneval's Memoirs, London, 1734. p. 77. Richard, tome. 1. p. 221—259. Martyn, p. 69—81.

are the Valentino and Venaria, two rural seats of the same monarch; the former about a mile distant toward the south, the latter 33 miles toward the northwest †.

On the margin of a semicircular bay of the Mediterranean, which forms a harbour deep, capacious, and safe, excepting that it is too much exposed to the southwest wind, appears the stately city of Genoa, rising in form of a theatre from the curved shore up the acclivity of a rocky hill, which appears as if it were scooped for the purpose, and forming a most magnificent object to mariners, as, in respect of its buildings, it is a most splendid city, being stiled by the Italians Genoa the Superb. That which is called the New Street, paved with lava, and formed throughout by two rows of large and elegant palaces of indescribable beauty, embellished without as well as within, with marble and paintings, is probably the finest street in the world. The houses of this town are in general high, many of them having six or seven stories. They are flat roofed, and many of them also have parapets or balustrades with flower pots on them, or terraces with small patches of earth planted with fruit-trees, so as to look like little hanging gardens: but, excepting a very small number, the streets are so narrow, some being only six feet wide, that the sun's rays can never strike the pavement. From this narrowness of the streets, and the nature of the

† Dict. de l'Italie, tome 2. p. 602—608. Piozzi, p. 33, 34. Miller's Travels, vol. 1. p. 116—128.

ground, this town admits not the use of such carriages as coaches, so that those who are too proud to walk are carried only in sedans or litters. It is fortified by two walls, one within the other; is about 6 miles in compass, and may contain near 100,000 inhabitants, many of whom are much crowded in their habitations, as great part of the area of the town is occupied by churches, convents, and gardens. The environs have also an uncommon appearance, many country seats of the gentry being built on steep rocks †.

Parma.

In a fine plain, and on the little river Parma which runs to the Po, stands the beautiful, but declining city of Parma, with wide, strait, and regularly built streets, a population of near 40,000, a surrounding wall above three miles in circuit, a citadel and other fortifications, but remarkable chiefly for its theatre built of wood, the finest at present in the world, but very seldom used, capable of accommodating at least 8000 spectators §, and constructed with such art, that the smallest whisper pronounced on the stage is distinctly heard in all parts of the house ||.

Florence.

In the midst of a delightful valley, surrounded almost on all sides by an amphitheatre of hills, and perhaps more adorned with villas than any other

† Dict. de l'Italie, tome 1. p. 506—512. Du Patty's Travels, p. 19. Dublin, 1789. Lady Craven's Travels, vol. 1. p. 83, 84. Miller, vol. 1. p. 190.

§ Some say, 12,000 or 14,000.

|| Dict. de l'Italie, tome 2. p. 252—259. Moore, vol. 3. letter 78. Richard, tome 2. p. 15—35.

part of Italy, stands Florence, the capital of Tuscany, unequally divided by the river Arno, over which are four stately bridges, all in sight one of another, of which that which is called the bridge of the Trinity is uncommonly elegant, built entirely of white marble, and ornamented with four beautiful statues representing the four seasons. The walls and fortifications of Florence have no great strength; its figure is nearly round, or oval, its circuit about 6 miles, and the number of its inhabitants supposed to be 80,000. From its own beauty and that of the country in which it is situated, it has obtained the title of Florence the Fair. The buildings are constructed in a handsome stile; many of the streets wide and strait, all of them extremely clean, and paved with broad stones, which are so chiseled as to prevent the horses from slipping. Among the numerous edifices decorated with paintings and statues is the cathedral, a vast and most elegant fabric, 490 feet long, 370 broad, and 385 high to the top of the cross, so encrusted, on the outside as well as within, with the finest variegated marble, that it appears as if it were all made of painted ivory. But that which seems to be the most remarkable object at Florence is its famous gallery, composed of three great Corridors, two of which, near 500 long each, are parallel, and are joined by the third on the south 100 feet long. This noble gallery communicates with the Pallazzo Pitti, or new palace of the Great Duke, and also with the old. It consists of a series of apartments which contain, among other curiosities, a collection by many

many thought the finest in the world, of the works of painters and sculptors, many of them ancient *.

Naples.

The small island of Capri shelters in some degree from southerly winds a deep, capacious, and beautiful bay, over whose shores around hangs a noble amphitheatre of wooded hills, and which, with a diameter of about 12 miles, has nearly the form of a semicircle, excepting that, by the intrusion of a promontory, it is, as it were, divided into two bays, so as somewhat to resemble the figure of three. From the northern margin of the more eastern of these bays rises the city of Naples, in the manner of a theatre, up the gentle and irregular acclivity, of a chain of rich fruitful hills, which stand on its northern side. Accommodating itself to the curvature of the shore it presents to the south the form of a crescent, commanding a glorious view of the fiery Vesuvius, the glassy bay with its impending groves, and a variety of other fine objects, and affording at the same time in itself an admirably fine sight to navigators in the bay, though no such fabric as Saint Peter's church in Rome, or Saint Paul's in London, towers above the rest in supereminent majesty.

Being considerably more than nine miles in compass, inhabited by 350,000 souls, and being the metropolis of the Neapolitan kingdom, which is the greatest of the Italian states, Naples ought to

* Moore's Italy, vol. 3. letter 71, 72. Dict. de l'Italie, tome 1. p. 447—454 and 489—494. Piozzi, p. 217. Richard, tome 3. p. 19—219. Lady Miller, vol. 2. p. 69—113.

be accounted, were it not for the unrivalled celebrity of Rome, the capital of all Italy. Its walls are useless as a fortification, and its fortresses, the chief of which is the castle of Saint Elmo which overlooks the city from the west, are more calculated to awe the citizens than to protect them against a foreign force. The houses are generally five or six stories high with battlements at top and flat roofs, on which are numbers of flower vases and fruit trees in boxes of earth, all which have an agreeable effect on the eye which views the city from a commanding point. The pavements are of square pieces of dark-colored lava. The streets in the center of the city are so narrow in proportion to the height of the buildings, as to be thereby rendered gloomy and close; but Naples can boast of some fine squares and streets equalled by few in Europe, as the street of Toledo, and some which are open to the bay †.

Of all the mansions of the Neapolitan monarch, in the city of Naples and its environs, the greatest is the palace of Caserta, situate 16 miles north of Naples, at the foot of a chain of hills which branch from the Appennine. This palace, hardly equalled by any in Europe in size and solidity, is admirable for the vast dimensions of its apartments, the bold span of their ceilings, the beauty and excellence of the materials employed in the building and the decorating of it, and for the extraordinary strength

† Swinburne, vol. 2. p. 50—63. Dict. de l'Italie, tome 2. p. 154—169. Moore, vol. 2. letter 55.

of the masonry. It rises with five great stories all around. The two principal points are 787 feet in length each; the two other sides each 616. The interior of this immense edifice is divided into four courts, and in the middle of the palace is a most magnificent staircase crowned with a circular hall, which affords a communication to every set of apartments †.

History.

The last described city, like many other towns in the Neapolitan dominions, owes its name and its origin to Grecian colonists; these enterprising people having, in the ages which followed the Trojan war, formed so many settlements on the coasts of southern Italy, that most of what is now called the kingdom of Naples acquired the name of Magna Græcia, or Great Greece. What other nations had, before the arrival of these emigrants from Greece, made this charming peninsula their place of abode, we cannot possibly discover with certainty at this distance of time; the accounts of historians concerning these events being altogether dubious: but we have good reason to suppose that people from Greece, or tribes of a kindred origin with the Grecians, fixed their habitations in other parts of the country beside Magna Græcia, since the Latin tongue, which was the vernacular language of at least the people who dwelled between the Tiber and the Liris, if not of many others, had, in its formation or structure, so close a

† Swinburne, vol. 2. p. 81—84. Dict. de l'Italie, tome 1. p. 251, 252.

conformity

conformity with the Greek, that it almost seems to have been originally a dialect of that language. §.

To this famous peninsula, or rather to parts of it indefinitely, were given in those ancient times the names of Ausonia, Ænotria, Saturnia, and Hesperia. The last, which signified a westerly region, denoted Spain as well as Italy; both these countries having that situation in respect of Greece, Italia || was another appellation; but under it at first was comprehended only a small part of the peninsula, and, even in the flourishing times of the Roman commonwealth, the limit of Italia toward the main continent was the river Rubicon; all the country thence to the Alps being denominated Gallia Cisalpina; for, Celtic tribes from Gaul beyond the Alps had possessed themselves of that extensive and level tract of country. The nations of Italy, from whatever sources derived, were in those early ages divided into a multitude of very small states, mostly commonwealths, but some also under

§ The old Latin had a much greater likeness to the Greek, particularly to the Æolic dialect, than what we call the modern Latin, or that which was in use when the writers, whom we denominate Classic, composed their works: but even the modern Latin has too great and striking an affinity with the Greek to escape observation.

|| I always choose to avoid etymologies of a dubious nature, but here I am fully of opinion with Sir Walter Raleigh (*History of the World* (p 458, 459,) that the name Italia is merely Aitolia, a little altered by a difference of pronunciation, and that this appellation was occasioned by a colony of Ætolians, whose language, we know, was the Æolic dialect.

monarchical

monarchical forms of government. These petty communities formed among themselves a number of confederacies or associations for mutual defence, resembling somewhat the modern league of the Swiss Cantons. Among these confederacies, or nations, we find often mentioned in history those of the Tuscans, or Etrurians, the Sabines, the Æqui, and Volscians, the Latins, the Samnites, the Lucanians, and the Apulians. Amid this great number of small communities, possessed singly of but little strength, and too feebly connected in their several confederacies for steady and permanent exertions, a city arose, the history of which furnishes to the statesman and philosopher a most ample field of speculation, and a very important lesson to mankind in general.

The Romans.

When, or by whom, was Rome originally founded, is, notwithstanding the circumstantial narrations of some, even eminent, historians, a question involved in doubt and obscurity. According to the Newtonian Chronology, which is the only probable guide for the dates of such early events, Romulus, whether he was the first founder, or which seems to me more probable, the new-modeller and aggrandizer of Rome*, began his administration about

* Roma, the name of this renowned city, signifies strength in what appears to have been the old language of the country, and seems not ill adapted to it as a place of strength, on account of its situation in a cluster of precipitous hills, which overlooked a large tract of level country. These hills may have been a place of refuge for exiles before the time of Romulus, and, as several
ancient

about 627 years before the commencement of the Christian era. This chieftain, whatever was his birth, or whatever were the means by which he obtained the sovereign power, seems to have reduced by salutary institutions a nest of outlaws and freebooters into a regular state, and to have greatly augmented the number of his citizens by the protection, which the steadiness of his administration, and the strength of the community afforded, amid that state of disorder, which we may well suppose to have then prevailed, among so many little states, in which the arts of government were but in their infancy. Romulus, who thus may be regarded as the founder of Rome, considered in the light of a legal community, was the first of seven kings, who reigned over it in succession. The government was then an elective and limited monarchy: but Tarquinius Superbus, the last of the seven, endeavouring to introduce arbitrary and hereditary power, gave cause to a general insurrection, by which his whole family were driven into exile, and regal authority was totally abolished.

On the expulsion of the Tarquinian family, about 508 years before the birth of Christ, Rome became a republic, in which the executive power was committed to two annual magistrates called Consuls, and the legislative rested virtually in the senate, or assembly of nobles, though it was ostensibly shared by the body of the people in general.

ancient historians have ascribed the origin of Rome to other persons long anterior to this prince, it seems more probable that he was the improver than the first founder of it.

Alterations

Alterations and amendments were introduced from time to time. As a kind of desperate remedy in alarming emergencies, a dictator was now and then created, a magistrate invested with unlimited power, but permitted by law to retain his authority no longer than six months. By the institution of the Plebeian tribuneship some degree of protection was obtained for the plebeians, or commons, against the oppression of the nobles; yet the government may be said to have long continued an aristocracy, mitigated, much more in appearance than in reality, by a mixture of democracy. Fierce dissensions, almost perpetual, rent the state; the plebeians, on one side, struggling for a reasonable share of liberty and property with boisterous and desultory efforts; while, on the other hand, the patricians, or nobles, aimed at the establishment of oligarchy, with more union among themselves, more covert measures, and often also by deeds of atrocious violence. These intestine distractions, which, through all the partial relations of historians, we can plainly discern to have arisen from the unrelenting avarice and obstinate pride of the patricians, appear to have been the cause why this commonwealth made, for above a century and a half, so very small a progress in her scheme of conquest; and even her preservation, as an independent state, seems to have been, in those times, more owing to the weakness and disunion of her neighbours than to her strength and policy. Notwithstanding the misrepresentations of historians, who flattered the vanity of the Romans, or feared to offend them, we discover that
Rome

Rome was reduced to a servile subjection by a Tuscan confederacy under the conduct of Porfena, about two years after the commencement of the commonwealth; and that, about 117 years after this event, it was saved from destruction by the payment of a ransom; for, a Gallic army, under a leader named Brennus, levelled the city to the ground, and besieged for seven months the fortress of the Capitol, or temple of Jupiter, built on a steep hill, whither a part of the citizens had retired with the most valuable effects; the rest having fled for refuge to the neighbouring states; but the Gauls, becoming weary of the blockade, agreed, in consideration of a sum, which is said to have been 1000 pounds weight of gold, to retire and to leave the Romans to rebuild their city, and to reinstate their shattered affairs*.

In 23 years after this terrible calamity, the plebeians, after a most obstinate and tedious contest, prevailed to have laws enacted, by which men of plebeian birth were entitled to be raised to the superior magistracies, and even that one of the consuls must be of that order; yet such was the opposition of the patricians, who disputed the ground to the last inch, that many years elapsed before these laws became established by practice: but as soon as their spirit was fully felt, and merit alone, without re-

* Camillus is said to have collected an army of fugitive Romans and others, and to have cut to pieces all the Gallic troops; but we have the testimony of Polybius, the Greek historian, whose attachment to the Romans is well known, that the Gauls retired into their own country unmolested with their booty.

gard to birth, qualified men to be elected to the highest dignities of the state, a new vigor arose among the Romans, and a force was exerted, of which they seemed hardly conscious before; inso-much that, in little more than 70 years from the time when those laws produced their entire effect, which may be fixed at 26 years from their first publication, this commonwealth, whose territory before that period had been confined within a small district of the peninsula, saw herself mistress of all the Italian regions from Gallia Cisalpina to the Ionian sea. In this course of conquest, of all Italian people the most fierce and persevering opposition was made by the Samnites, a nation who inhabited the mountainous provinces now called Abruzzo, where the Appennine rises to its greatest height. But the progress of the Romans was also for some time impeded by a foreign power; for Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, a most able and enterprising general, but unsteady in his aims, brought a formidable army into Italy to assist Tarentum. This prince, at first victorious over the Romans, was defeated in the end, and abandoning the country, left his allies to the mercy of Rome.

Hitherto the operations of the Romans had been confined within their own peninsula, and, unless we should except some Gallic invaders, Pyrrhus was the first foreign potentate who experienced their prowess; but a new scene soon opened, and their legions passed beyond the shores of Italy to encounter the most formidable rival with which their commonwealth ever contended. The first war of Rome
against

against Carthage, commonly called the first Punic war, commenced 259 years before Christ, and continued at least 23 years with a strange variety of fortune. Sicily was the chief scene of contest, and in general the Roman armies composed of free citizens, proud of their political rights, yet under an admirable discipline, proved victorious over those of Carthage, which consisted chiefly of foreign mercenaries; but far inferior to the Carthaginians in naval skill, the Romans sustained such vast losses by shipwrecks, that they twice abandoned to the rival power the undisputed dominion of the sea: but once more trying their fortune on this element, they so discomfited the hostile fleets at the *Ægates*, near the south-western angle of Sicily, that Carthage, to purchase a peace, was obliged to relinquish to the Romans that great and exuberant island, to restore all prisoners, and to engage to pay 3200 talents in ten years.

A horrible rebellion of her mercenaries at home prevented Carthage from renewing the war, so soon and so effectually, as she otherwise might; but in 23 years after the end of the first was the commencement of the second Punic war, which raged for 17 years, and was chiefly conducted, on the side of Carthage, by the genius of Hannibal, a general, than whom, if the accounts of his actions had been faithfully transmitted to us, we could not hesitate, I think, to conclude that no greater ever existed. Having subdued Spain, he crossed the Pyrenees, Gaul, and the Alps, into Italy, where he gave the Romans four successive defeats, in the
last

last of which, at Cannæ in Apulia, near 80,000 appear to have fallen on the side of Rome. Convinced by sad experience of the great superiority of this leader, the Romans never after, during 13 years which he remained in Italy after this battle, dared to face him in the open field, but confined themselves to a defensive kind of warfare, their armies hovering round him in the mountains, watching every opportunity to harraß his troops, and to straiten his quarters †. As this great man was, by inimical factions at Cathage, prevented from receiving the necessary supplies, this plan of operations gradually diminished his force; yet he still maintained his post in the enemies country, until he was, greatly against his will, recalled by the Carthaginian government to defend the center of their empire against an army of Romans combined with the numerous forces of Numidia under the conduct of Scipio Africanus. At Zama in Africa, Hannibal, notwithstanding the most consummate generalship, suffered a defeat from an army

† Roman historians very gravely tell us of some victories obtained over Hannibal in Italy; but the facts and course of events, related by themselves, are sufficient to prove these victories to be mere fictions; besides that the testimonies of Florus and Polybius, are in direct opposition to them. I have been often astonished at the servility with which most modern writers, in treating of Roman affairs, have followed the historians of that nation, without making the necessary allowances for flattery, prejudice, and error. Mr. Hooke has considered these matters in a proper light; yet a more finished history than his of this wonderful commonwealth might still be produced, and I should be very happy to see such a work proceed from the pen of a Mitford or a Gibbon.

vastly

vastly superior, and from a general perhaps at that time second only to himself. Carthage thus destitute of resource, agreed to such hard conditions of peace as left her ever after at the mercy of Rome, a state which hardly ever shewed mercy except through motives of interested policy. In 55 years after this fatal peace, the Romans without the least color of justice, and by an ungenerous and fallacious mode of procedure, totally destroyed this mighty city, one of the greatest and most opulent of all antiquity.

From the ruin of Carthage historians date the ruin of Roman virtue. The Romans, we must confess, even in those times when their morals were accounted the most pure, appear to have been blessed with very few amiable qualities, and of clemency toward strangers to have had no idea; for their minds were not at all meliorated by literature, their attention being given solely to agriculture, war, and a narrow circle of politics; but, from the manner of their education, they were eminent for certain stern and inflexible virtues; a rigid œconomy; an austere temperance; an inviolate observance of religious rites, superstitious as they were; a contempt of pomp and riches; a vigor of constitution acquired by habits of laborious exercise; a daring courage which no danger could appal; an invincible constancy and perseverance under public misfortunes; and an ardent spirit of patriotism, which sacrificed all, even parental tenderness and life itself to the aggrandizement of the state. But, when Carthage was reduced to a state of debility, these virtues be-

gan instantly to relax; and when that great commercial commonwealth was most cruelly and treacherously obliterated from the face of the earth, a most alarming corruption of manners, as if for a speedy punishment of public injustice, contaminated all ranks, insomuch that Rome became an abominable sink of avarice, luxury, and every species of pollution.

Notwithstanding this baneful degeneracy, as no rival power remained, and as the states, which still subsisted, were through servile fear, extremely ready to send auxiliary forces to assist in crushing any people against whom the Roman arms were directed, their conquests were continued, and humanity shrinks from the horrible details of devastations and slaughters committed by the avarice and ambition, often of individuals: nor is generosity less wounded by the base and perfidious arts practised by the generals and senate to attain their unjust ends.

The miseries which the Romans brought on foreign nations recoiled on themselves. The face of affairs was sadly changed throughout Italy. A great proportion of that delightful peninsula was despoiled of its native inhabitants. The peasants were forcibly expelled in thousands from their little farms by the rich and powerful, who usurped and held in their possession vast tracts of land, which they cultivated by slaves; multitudes of people being sold into slavery from the conquered countries. So far was this practice carried, that Italy was hyperbolically said to be dispeopled of its free natives and inhabited by slaves. The Gracchi, two great and
generous

generous brothers, who attempted to protect the poor from such oppressions, were massacred by the party of the rich and avaricious. Whatever ostensible forms of administration were maintained, no true republican spirit or real liberty any longer subsisted. All power centered in a few, and whatever chief, or combination of chiefs, could hire the most formidable mobs, or obtain the command of the greatest military force, was for the time the real sovereign of the state. The flames of intestine war frequently burst forth with desolating fury. In these struggles for power the inhabitants of whole cities of Italy were massacred at once, and Rome very often beheld her streets bestrewed with the carcases of her own citizens.

From these dismal distractions the empire seemed at length to take refuge under the protection of the great Julius Cæsar, who, vanquishing all opponents, remained the undisputed sovereign. Such was the melancholy state of affairs that a master was absolutely necessary for the Romans, and a better master than Cæsar perhaps could not be found; he being not only a man of consummate abilities as a warrior, statesman, and scholar; but, which is much more to his honor, a man who far surpassed all the Romans in clemency. But short was the duration of the tranquillity procured by Cæsar's mild government, that great man being assassinated, 43 years before Christ, by a band of conspirators, of whom a few may have been excited to this fatal deed by mistaken patriotism, but certainly most of them by envy and ambition. The most bloody

civil wars and massacres followed the death of Cæsar, until Octavius, afterwards stiled Cæsar Augustus, the nephew and adopted son of the great Julius, became, 28 years before the Christian era, the uncontrolled lord of the Roman dominions, all having yielded to his fortune, his policy, or his arms.

From that period the Roman government continued a despotic monarchy, and to Augustus succeeded a most infamous race of tyrants. In these gloomy reigns the debasement of men's minds became greater and more extensive. The general contagion so enervated the army that marching on foot was at last considered as too great a hardship, and every soldier must be a horseman. The effeminacy of these troops, as it might be expected, was equalled by their insolence. The real sovereignty, as it usually happens in despotic monarchies, rested in the soldiery, who deposed and created emperors at pleasure. They once even formally set the imperial sceptre to public auction, and gave it to the highest bidder. Such licentious troops, debilitated by vice, were ill-fitted to cope with the fierce and hardy, though undisciplined bands, of barbarians from the northern parts of Europe and Asia, who began to ravage the provinces of the Roman empire in the third century after the birth of Christ. Unable to make an effectual resistance to their ferocious attacks, the Romans had recourse to the dreadful expedient of hiring one nation of barbarians to protect them against another.

Some

Some emperors of superior abilities arose, who by great exertions deferred to a more distant day the inevitable ruin, which, from the general depravity of manners, awaited this ill-fated empire; but, at the end of the fourth century, Italy itself, the seat of dominion, which had formerly produced those invincible legions, by which the Roman commonwealth acquired so immense an extent of territory, was invaded, without much opposition, by the Goths, who carried devastation through that luxuriant land, in the decoration of which the wealth of no small portion of the globe had for ages been expended. For personal security the emperors transferred their seat from Rome to Ravenna. Rome soon fell an easy prey to the barbarians, an army of Goths under Alaric taking and sacking it in the year 410. By this and succeeding ravages this mighty city, which had dispensed misery to so great a part of the human race, which had glutted itself with the spoils of nations, and embellished itself to an unparalleled pitch of magnificence, was reduced to a ruinous and lamentable condition †.

These

† It is impossible to find at present what was the number of inhabitants in ancient Rome in its highest state of magnitude and population. Those, who have rated it at seven millions, have gone beyond all bounds of probability. The greatest number assigned on rational grounds (and that seems to me too great) is three millions, of whom all, except about 600,000 at most, must have in all probability inhabited the suburbs, which were doubtless of vast extent, but appear to have been occupied only by meaner citizens, as no magnificent ruins are found on the grounds

The
Goths.

These deadly blows, levelled, as it were, against its heart and vitals, reduced the Roman empire to a name, and that name was relinquished at the resignation of Augustulus in the year 476, when Odoacer, Chief of the Herulians, a Vandal tribe, caused himself to be proclaimed king of Italy. This title, together with his life, was wrested from him 17 years after by Theodoric a Goth, who converted Italy into a Gothic kingdom. The regal sceptre descended to the successors of Theodoric, but, before the middle of the following century, the Greek empire, which still retained the title of the Roman empire of the east, sent forces into Italy, which under the conduct of Belisarius, and afterward of Narfes, two extraordinary generals, quite broke the power of the Goths in that country; so that in 564 the conquest was complete, and Italy became a province of the Greek empire, governed, under the court of Constantinople, by a magistrate or viceroy, stiled the exarch, whose place of residence was Ravenna. But a formidable enemy to this government soon appeared, for Narfes the exarch, burning with resentment on account of an unmerited indignity which he received from his court,

The Lom-
bards.

invited into Italy the Lombards, a nation of the Vandals, who quickly overran all the northern parts of the peninsula, and, making Pavia their capital, established in 570 the kingdom of Lombardy, which

grounds on which they must have stood. (Moore's Italy, vol. 2. letter 37.) To whatever number the people of Rome amounted in the days of its splendor, they were reduced by repeated ravages and slaughters to a few thousands.

extended

extended from the Alps to Ravenna and Rome, and from the Adriatic to the opposite sea. They afterward carried their arms into the southern parts, and reduced the territories subject to the exarchate of Ravenna to a comparatively small extent. The exarchate itself was finally abolished by the taking of Ravenna and other places in 741 by the Lombards, but some of the maritime parts in the south still remained with the Greek empire.

The kingdom of Lombardy survived the exarchate no great length of time, for, it was entirely subverted in 774 by the Franks under Charlemagne, who annexed most of Italy to his other dominions, and left it to be possessed by his posterity. Even after the extinction of Charlemagne's race, the sovereignty of Italy was supposed to belong to the emperors of Germany as successors of this great prince, and this claim was enforced after the middle of the tenth century by Otho the great, who added the kingdom of Italy, or rather of Lombardy, to the German empire: but, from the nature of the feudal government and other circumstances, the subjection of many parts of the country to these princes was very imperfect, besides that others were independent of their jurisdiction. Their authority was much more enfeebled by an opposition raised against them after the middle of the eleventh century by the popes, who excited terrible commotions against the emperors in Italy and Germany. This opposition gave birth to the two famous factions of the Guelfs and Ghibelines, the former partizans of the popes, the latter of the emperors; factions whose

whose reciprocal violence stained Italy with blood during near three centuries. After the rise of these convulsions, those parts of the peninsula, which had acknowledged the authority of the emperors, acquired complete independence, and by a variety of partial revolutions the political condition of Italy became what we now find it.

Antiquities.

The Goths, the Vandals, and the Huns, whose thirst of slaughter and of prey led them to desolate the Roman provinces, committed, as in other countries, so also in Italy, a rueful havoc of the human species; insomuch that three centuries after, when population might be supposed to have in some small part repaired its loss, this exuberant peninsula, which had been cultivated like a garden throughout, and had swarmed with inhabitants, exhibited every mark of a paucity of men; the country being infested with wolves, and overspread, where it is now well cultivated and populous, with vast gloomy forests or noisome swamps†. These destroyers of mankind could not be expected to spare in their savage fury the elegant works of art, which then superlatively abounded in Italy. Vast numbers of noble edifices, columns, statues, vases, paintings, and other such productions of opulence and of taste, perished in the general wreck. The superstition of succeeding times was perhaps not less injurious in this respect than the indiscriminate ravages of the northern invaders; the ignorant Christians of the dark ages, which succeeded the disso-

† This is illustrated by Muratori in his *Antiquitates Italicae medii ævi*.

lution of the Roman power, considering the specimens of the fine arts left by the ancients as having a connection with pagan worship, destroyed or defaced them with barbarous zeal. Even in times less rude and illiterate a dilapidation was continued by the avarice of nobles and rich ecclesiastics, who made use of the materials and ornaments of ancient fabrics in the building and the decorating of their own palaces †.

Notwithstanding these causes of destruction, which we might almost suppose sufficient to annihilate all the monuments of antiquity in this country, such numbers are still extant, that many folio volumes might be filled with descriptions of them. With such amazing strength and solidity were the structures of the ancients erected, that many of them might defy the erosions of time for thousands of years, if they had not been violated by the hands of men. Of these a considerable number are still extant in a greater or less degree of preservation. Multitudes of statues and other models of antique workmanship, generally more or less mutilated, are discovered in the rubbish of demolished edifices, or beneath the surface of the earth, where they have lain buried for a series of ages; and Italian artists have a peculiar dexterity to restore these, as nearly as it is possible, to their original appearance. Many relics of even Grecian architecture are seen in the king-

† To these practices of the nobility alludes this line,
Quod non fecerunt barbari, fecerunt Barberini.
 The Barberini were a noble family in Rome.

dom of Naples ; and one of our best travellers † has observed, that in those, which are indisputably Grecian, he could never find brick in any part of the composition ; whereas, in the ruins of those buildings which were raised by the Romans, this kind of material is sometimes seen.

Pœstum.

Among the monuments of Grecian workmanship in this peninsula I shall notice only the ruins of Pœstum, a city celebrated by Roman writers for its fragrant roses, which bloom twice in the year, that is, in spring and in autumn. Pœstum was originally founded by the Dorian Greeks, but afterwards restored and augmented by the Sybarites another Grecian colony. Bearing at first the name of Siftilis, and afterward of Possidonia, it was called Pœstum by the Romans, whence the modern Italians have formed its present appellation of Pesto. The relics of this very ancient city, which has been destitute of inhabitants perhaps above a thousand years past, are a most magnificent heap of ruins, parted from the sea by a sandy down, distant about 30 miles in a south-easterly direction from Salerno, and visible to navigators from every part of the extensive bay, which bears that name. The city-wall, of a quadrangular form, about three miles in circuit, with four gates, one in the middle of each side, is almost entire. The private houses have fallen to the ground in a lapse of so many ages ; but a great street is still to be traced from the north to the south gate, on the eastern side of which are

† Mr. Swinburne.

seen the remains of the principal public edifices. In these the ancient citizens "displayed the true Grecian solidity and majesty of taste. Few cities have left such noble proofs of their magnificence, such monuments of their architecture."

Of these the nearest to the south wall is a quadrilateral building with nine columns in each front, and eighteen on each side; the architrave whole all round, and some pieces of the frieze remaining; the edifice divided longitudinally into two equal parts by a row of similar pillars. At a small distance from this toward the north is the capital ruin, the relics of a temple with pillars 30 feet high, their "pediments and entablatures almost entire and of a solemn massy proportion. This is one of the noblest monuments of antiquity which we have left; though built in a style which few modern architects will adopt, it may perhaps serve to inspire them with sublime ideas, and convince them how necessary to true grandeur in architecture are simplicity of plan, solidity in proportions, and greatness of the component members; they may perhaps discover that a profusion of ornaments rather diminishes the general effect of a large building than adds to its real dignity, and that the Greeks and Romans acted upon wise principles, when they raised their public buildings in a plain grave taste, reserving for small edifices that high finishing, which is more expressive of elegance than majesty †."

An

† This account of the ruins of Pæstum has been taken from Swinburne (vol. 2. section 18.) though others have been consulted.

Hercula-
neum,
Pompeii,
and Sta-
biæ.

An unfrequented situation seems to have saved from farther damage what still remains of the Grecian Pœstum; but a natural phenomenon of a most calamitous and terrible kind, which might justly be expected to bring with it the most complete destruction to every work of man, has actually proved the cause of an almost perfect preservation to the monuments of Roman antiquity contained in the three towns of Herculaneum, Pompeii, and Stabiæ, seated in the vicinity of Vesuvius. These in the year 79 of the Christian era were overwhelmed to the depth of many feet above the tops of the highest buildings by a deluge of ashes, cinders, pumice stones, and other volcanic substances, disgorged from the volcano, and driven by a violent wind, so as to fall in the manner of a shower over a large tract of country, burying beneath it the plantations, the houses, and the people. The upper surface of this volcanic stratum, as it happens in such cases, soon became soil, and new buildings and plantations arose over the summits of the old:

sulted. These ruins, though always known to the neighbouring peasants, and serving as a land-mark to navigators, were never brought into public notice, until they were made known to the learned by a painter of Naples; but the report is quite fabulous that they were surrounded by impervious forests, and unknown to all mankind, until they were accidentally discovered by this painter. Mr. Brydone must have imagined the south of Italy to be as desolate as the wilds of America, when he supposed that several other deserted cities still remained unknown, imbosomed in vast forests, in that country. This imagination is totally groundless. See Swinburne as above.

The

The town of Portici, in particular, where is a palace of the King of Naples, stands directly on the ground under which lies the ancient city of Herculaneum. Thus ingulfed, as it were, in the bowels of the earth, secure from the blind fury of the Goths, the unhallowed zeal of bigots, and every other malignant passion of man, lay during seventeen centuries, as if reserved for the inspection of the present enlightened age, the edifices of the ancient Romans, with their ornaments, their paintings and statues, their household furniture, and all kinds of instruments and utensils, the manuscripts, the very victuals, and the skeletons of the inhabitants in the various postures in which they expired.

The roofs of the buildings are found to have fallen beneath the incumbent weight; but the walls are standing; and it is found that the houses of the ancient Italians were smaller, more neat and convenient than those of the modern. The paintings are found executed on a kind of stucco, hard, and smooth as marble, with which the walls are covered *. These are cut out from the stucco with
great

* Because no paintings of the ancients have as yet been discovered equal to those of the moderns, some have concluded that the art of painting was not carried to so great a degree of improvement among the former, as among the latter: but this conclusion is ill founded, unless it can be proved that the best productions of the ancient painters are among the pieces which have survived; but this is totally improbable. The paintings of Stabiae are inferior to those of Pompeii, and these again to those

great dexterity, and deposited together with other pieces of antiquity discovered in these subterraneous towns, in the royal museum in the palace of Portici, which contains the most curious collection in the world, a collection which receives daily accessions, according as a farther progress is made in the removal of the earth from the buried streets, and in the clearing of the houses. The loaves of bread, and other provisions for the table, though half-burned like cinder, preserve their form. The books consist of volumes, each volume composed of leaves pasted one to the end of another, and formed into a roll about two inches, or little more, in diameter, bearing, from the influence of the volcanic matter, the appearance of a burned stick, and cracking into pieces, or rather dust, at the least attempt to unroll it. An ingenious method has been invented to render these volumes legible by gluing the parched fragments on a flat surface; but it has been found so tedious and troublesome, that it is said to be discontinued, after three or four books only, in the Greek language, and those of but little value, had in this way been recovered.

Herculaneum, situate about four miles from Vesuvius, is not only buried by the ashes of the eruption above mentioned, but has also since received

those of Herculaneum. Why may not cities more magnificent still than Herculaneum have been possessed of pieces still superior, which being of a perishable nature have long ago disappeared? And even supposing Herculaneum to have contained works of the best painters, who can pretend to say that any which have as yet been found belong to this class?

over

over it the matter of six several eruptions, so that the depth of the heap which lies on it is said to be between 70 and 100 feet, reckoning from the pavement of the streets. The first occurrence which led to the discovery of this hidden city happened in 1713, when some labourers in digging for a well found a statue which stood on one of the benches of the theatre; but very little was done to explore the treasures of antiquity here concealed until after the year 1736, when the king of Naples caused considerable excavations to be made in the manner of a mine, cutting subterranean passages to the principal buildings, and clearing one or two of them all round. The work is at present continued with far less alacrity, and very much still remains to be performed. Of the buildings discovered in this subterranean city, the chief is the theatre, which is a great object of curiosity, as being almost entire, and conveying to us the best idea of the Roman Theatres. Its form is oval; the seats of the spectators disposed in a semi-ellipse above 160 feet in diameter; and the balustrade, which divided the orchestra from the stage, ornamented with a row of statues.

Pompeii, or Pompeia, a city of much less magnificence than Herculaneum, is not covered by the volcanic matter more than to the depth of twelve feet. Though the place of its concealment was not found until near 40 years after the discovery of Herculaneum, a much greater progress has been made in the disclosing of it to the inspection of the curious. Here the excavations are not formed in
the

the manner of mines, but are quite open to the day-light. The openings are made irregularly. "The center of the city is yet hidden under vineyards, while the principal exertions are made near the wall and gates." By an excavation in one place is laid open part of a principal street narrower than the Strand in London, with narrow causeways at the sides for foot-passengers as in the lanes of Dublin. In the pavement of the street, which is of lava, are plainly seen the marks of horses feet and of carriages, from which the distance between the carriage-wheels is found to have been exactly four feet and three inches. The houses are irregularly disposed, "for some advance, while others retire behind the line: the shops have stone seats before them, and over their doors emblems of their trade in relievo. Their appearance is exactly the same as that of the present shops of Rome and Naples. The houses are small and built round courts, from which all the apartments received their light: a grate in the center carried off all the water which fell from the roof. The rooms are small and square, and many had no light but through the door." Among the public edifices are a small temple of Isis, and, at a considerable distance from it, a barrack for the accommodation of the Roman garrison. The latter is a building in form of a rectangle, 'with a colonnade toward the court, somewhat in the stile of the Royal Exchange in London, but smaller: the pillars are of brick covered with shining stucco, elegantly fluted.' "The foldiers in their idle hours amused themselves with drawing figures of fencers and
wrestlers,

wrestlers, and in writing their names upon the plaster: the letters are very long and closely joined together." "It may safely be asserted that none of those, who have endeavoured to transmit their names to posterity, in this manner, have succeeded so well as the soldiers of the garrison of Pompeia."

Stabiæ, or Stabia, distant about six miles from Vesuvius southward of that mountain, was, when it was overwhelmed by the eruption of 79, no more than a village, or long string of country houses; for, it had been destroyed about 82 years before Christ by the murderous commander Sylla, and, before its final catastrophe by the ashes of the volcano, its rebuilt edifices had been overturned by an earthquake. Here, as the buildings are not thought worth the trouble of preserving, no permanent excavations are made, but, as soon as every thing curious is taken out of a house, the earth is thrown back into its place and the pit filled*.

Of the other monuments of the ancient Romans dispersed in the various parts of Italy, consisting of public roads, amphitheatres, triumphal arches, columns, and other works of a mighty nation among whom the arts were cultivated, I can afford room for the mention of only three or four. Of the public roads, which were causeways of great

Roads,
Amphi-
theatres,
&c.

* For these subterranean towns, see Swinburne, vol. 1. sect. 8. and vol. 2. sect. 13. Moore, vol. 3. letter 70. Dict. de l'Italie, tome 1. 563—569. and tome 2. p. 137—145, 338, 339, 534, 562—564.

The quotations marked thus " are copied from Swinburne; those marked thus ' from Moore.

length made of huge stones firmly compacted, we can form the best idea from that one of them which is at present in the best state of preservation. This is the Appian way, which runs from Rome to Capua, and thence to Brindisi; 15 feet broad in the stone-work, and, where examined, nine feet thick, including the upper pavement; the structure so solid and firm as to have in some parts of it survived entire the wasteful operation of at least eighteen centuries †

The Catacombs of Rome and Naples are subterraneous-vaults ramified in various directions, and occupying a very considerable space. The precise time and original end of their formation are unknown, but they are said to have been used by the early Christians, not only as repositories of the dead, but also as places of clandestine worship in times of persecution. The Catacombs of Rome are much inferior to those of Naples, which are said to be large enough to conceal forty thousand persons ‡.

The grotto of Paupillipo near Naples is a perforation, or cavern carried quite through a hill, and used as a public road not only for foot passengers, but also for horsemen and carriages. It is a very gloomy passage, as it receives light only from its two entrances and some holes above. Its roof is formed in the manner of an arch. It is from eighty-nine to twenty-four feet high, twenty-two

† Dict. de l'Italie, tome 2. p. 684, 685.

‡ Dict. de l'Italie, tome 1. p. 264—266.

wide, and two thousand four hundred and fourteen feet long. For what purpose this perforation, which seems to be very ancient, was originally made, is unknown §.

As the theatres had seats only on one side for the accommodation of the spectators, and were intended to be appropriated to dramatic exhibitions; so the amphitheatres had seats all round, and were designed for the combats of gladiators, and also of wild beasts, sometimes against men, and sometimes one against another. These bloody spectacles continued to be the supreme delight of the Romans, a people accounted in some respects highly civilized, until the benign religion of Christ, which brings real civilization to those by whom it is rightly understood, gave the minds of men a different turn, and put an end to these infernal amusements. The amphitheatres were of a form somewhat oval. In the middle was the arena, a space covered with sand, on which the combatants displayed their powers. Around this were the seats of the spectators, retiring from the center in proportion as they rose in height; and on the outside of these, or underneath, were the apartments in which the ferocious animals destined for exhibition were confined. The outside part of the edifice, which enclosed the rest, rose much higher than the seats, and served as a crowning to the interior part, which, being without a roof, was covered in times of exhibition with some kind of cloth to shield the

§ Swinburne, vol. 2. sect. 8.

spectators from the sun and rain. For this purpose square holes were formed in the cornice for the capstans, by means of which the ropes were stretched which sustained the cloths.

The remains of several great amphitheatres are to be seen in Italy, as at Capua, at Puzzuoli, and at Cassino; but that which has suffered the least dilapidation, and is of the greatest size of all in Italy out of Rome, is the amphitheatre at Verona, which having been repaired in modern times, has the seats and other interior parts entire, but has lost its crowning, and all the exterior wall or enclosure. The length of this oval edifice is almost 500 feet; its breadth 390. The arena, or elliptic area within, is 255 feet long, and 137 broad; the height of the edifice about 75. On the ranges of seats, 46 in number, 22,000 spectators can sit with ease; but it is said to have been, in its ancient state, capable of accommodating 30,000, including those who stood. This amphitheatre, though now quite naked, and despoiled of what rendered it far more majestic, still astonishes a stranger at his first entrance, with an inexpressible air of majesty †.

But in Rome, which far surpasses all other cities in the number and magnitude of ancient monuments, are the relics of the Colosseum or amphitheatre of Vespasian, called by the modern Italians *Il Coliseo*, the greatest and most magnificent amphitheatre; indeed the vastest and most majestic edi-

† Richard, tome 2. p. 532—535. Dict. de l'Italie, tome 1. p. 49, 50.

fice, ever erected by the ancient Romans. In length 600 feet, in breadth 500, and in height 170, it is said to have furnished room to 107,000 spectators, of whom 87,000 were accommodated with seats. All around ran, with a multitude of statues between them, four most beautiful ranges of pillars, in which were united the Doric, the Ionic, the Corinthian, and Composite orders, and which supported three great rows of double porticos. The stones employed in the building were bound together with great clasps of brass. These were taken out by the Goths, who by this operation much defaced the fabric, without any other considerable damage. Its ruin was effected by the nobles and churchmen of modern Rome, who built and adorned several palaces out of its spoils; particularly the palace of Saint Mark. By such dilapidations the interior part of this prodigious edifice is totally ruined, and scarcely half of the exterior inclosure is left; yet what remains excites in the mind of the spectator an idea of grandeur inconceivable by those who have not viewed it with contemplative attention*.

Triumphal arches were a kind of great magnificent porticos, embellished by the united powers of architecture and sculpture; and erected in honor of generals who had gained important victories. The remnants of such are seen in several parts of the

* The idea which Mr. Gibbon conceived of the grandeur of the Roman empire, merely from a view of these majestic ruins, was what first made him think of writing its history. For the Colosseum, see Richard, tome 6. p. 315—321.

peninsula, and some of a modern date have been raised in imitation of the old. At Rome out of many only three remain in any tolerable degree of preservation, "those of Titus, Septimius Severus, and Constantine. The last is by much the finest of the three, but its chief beauties are not genuine, nor, properly speaking, its own: they consist of some admirable basso relievos stolen from the forum of Trajan, representing that emperor's victories over the Dacians. This theft might perhaps not have been so notorious to posterity, if the artists of Constantine's time had not added some figures, which make the fraud apparent, and, by their great inferiority, evince the degeneracy of the arts in the interval between the reigns of these two emperors" †.

Pillars, as well as triumphal arches, were erected as monuments of great exploits. Of these the noblest remaining is that of Trajan which is still entire in all its beauty, excepting that the rubbish of fallen buildings around it conceals its base from visitants until they make a very near approach. The whole height of this admirable column is said to be near 160 feet, including the present image on the top, which is 24 feet high. The pillar itself, without base or pedestal, is 120 feet in length. "It consists of 23 circular pieces of white marble, horizontally placed, one above the other: it is about twelve feet in diameter at the bottom, and

† Moore, vol. 2. letter 40. See Richard, tome 6. p. 321—
322.

ten at the top. The plinth of the base is a piece of marble 21 feet square. A staircase, consisting of 183 steps, and sufficiently wide to admit a man to ascend, is cut out of the solid marble, leaving a small pillar in the middle, round which the stair winds from the bottom to the top. The most memorable exploits of Trajan's expedition against the Dacians are admirably wrought in a continued spiral line from the bottom of the column to the top. The figures toward the top are too far removed from the eye to be seen perfectly. Viewed from any considerable distance all the sculpture is lost, and a plain fluted pillar of the same proportions would have had as fine an effect" on the eye, but would by no means be so valuable a monument to the antiquarian. "The ashes of Trajan were deposited in an urn at the bottom, and his statue at the top. Pope Sixtus the fifth, in the room of the emperor's, has placed a statue of Saint Peter upon this column*."

Of the temples of the ancient Romans, of which any vestiges are now remaining, the Pantheon, though inferior to some others in magnitude, is by far the most worthy of notice, being a master-piece of architecture in its kind, so solid and strong as

* Moore, vol. 2. letter 41. Dr. Moore adds; "I observed to a gentleman, with whom I visited this pillar, that I thought there was not much propriety in placing the figure of St. Peter upon a monument representing the victories, and erected in honour of, the emperor Trajan. There is some propriety, however, replied he coldly, in having made the statue of *brass*." See also Richard, tome 6. p. 271—279.

to have survived all depredations, and still beautiful, though despoiled of its finest ornaments, particularly the covering of its roof, which was of gilt copper. This noble edifice, which notwithstanding all its losses, is still a beauteous monument of Roman taste, is almost the same in height as in the diameter of its base, which is nearly 160 feet; and from its round form has obtained the name of the Rotunda. "Within, it is divided into eight parts; the gate at which you enter forming one: the other seven compartments, if they may be so called, are each of them distinguished by two fluted Corinthian pillars, and as many pilasters of Giallo Antico. The capitals and bases are of white marble: these support a circular entablature. The wall is perpendicular for half the height of the temple: it then slopes forward as it ascends, the circumference gradually diminishing, till it terminates in an opening of about 25 feet diameter. There are no windows: the central opening in the vault admitting a sufficiency of light, has a much finer effect than windows could have had. No great inconvenience can happen from this opening. The conical form of the temple prevents the rain from falling near the walls where the altars now are, and where the statues of the gods were formerly placed. The rain, which falls in the middle, immediately drills through holes, which perforate a large piece of porphyry, which forms the center of the pavement, the whole of which consists of various pieces of marble, agate, and other materials,

rials, which have been picked up from the ruins, and now compose a singular kind of mosaic work *." This much admired edifice, said to have been originally dedicated to Jupiter the avenger, and afterwards decorated with such a multitude of images of imaginary gods and heroes, as thence to have received the name of Pantheon, has been in modern times converted into a Christian temple, and dedicated to all the saints of the Romish church.

The conversion of this celebrated temple, from a Religion-house of heathen gods and heroes to a house of Christian saints, marks the revolution which has taken place in this country with respect to the objects of religious adoration. Antecedent to all authentic records of Italian history now extant, was the introduction of the Grecian polytheism into Italy, which, with no other alteration than the admission of a few Egyptian and other deities, continued to be the religion of its inhabitants until the diffusion of the bright rays of the Gospel among them. This divine system of morality was preached in Rome, soon after our Saviour's passion, by the great and learned apostle Saint Paul and others. In spite of persecution it gradually gained profelytes, infomuch that, in the beginning of the fourth century, they seemed to outnumber the professors of the ancient superstitions, and in the year 324 their mode of worship was established in Italy, and the other parts of the Roman empire, by Constantine the great. In the gloomy ages of barbarism

* Moore, vol. 2. letter 39. See also Richard, tome 6. p. 248—254.

which

which succeeded, many alterations were made as to faith and practice, by which the Christian system, as professed by the Italians, became totally different from what it had originally been, and was moulded into what we call the Roman Catholic religion, which is, to the exclusion of all others, established in every part of Italy and its dependencies, excepting that the Jews have a kind of toleration in several towns, and that the public exercise of the Greek form of worship is permitted, in a few places, as at Venice, and in the Neapolitan district of Cosenza, where dwell a people of Illyrian extraction called Albanese; besides that some indulgence is given to foreign traders, particularly at the Tuscan town of Livorno, otherwise called Leghorn, where people of every religion enjoy a complete liberty of conscience.

It must, no doubt, be allowed, that the Italians in general are extremely bigotted to their religious prejudices, and intolerant to the public performance of any ceremonies of religion different from their own; yet, much to their honor, they give no molestation, on account of a difference of faith, to foreigners who travel or reside among them; provided that these conduct themselves with that propriety, and decent respect, which is absolutely due from strangers to the solemn rites of any country which they visit, however absurd, or even ridiculous, such rites may be. This kind of politeness, and liberality of behaviour, is in no part of Italy more conspicuous than in Rome, nor among any denomination of people more than among the cardinals
and

and the court of the Pope; and why not, since these are men of superior education and superior views, which exalt the mind above the narrow prejudices of the ignorant and vulgar? Courts of inquisition are established in most of the Italian states; but these are far from being actuated by that truly diabolical spirit, which renders those of Spain and Portugal the just objects of detestation to all rational men, as well of the Romish itself, as of every other communion. It must be confessed that, even in Italy, these courts however moderate, must, on account of the shackles which they impose upon the mind, have, on the whole, a great preponderancy of evil effects; yet one good consequence attends them, which is, that they restrain that lamentable propensity which vast numbers have to vent their anger, or to display what they reckon their wit, in vain oaths and impious execrations. This may be particularly remarked by travellers, who pass from the dominions of the Pope, where the inquisition reigns in full force, into those of the Neapolitan monarch, where no such tribunal is permitted to subsist. In the former the people only “vent their choler in obscure words, or pious ejaculations; but the swearing of the Neapolitan borders upon blasphemy*.”

With a due exception of such as are of more cultivated, or more reflecting, understandings than the general mass of people, the Italians are grossly superstitious in their modes of worship. They are

* Swinburne, vol. 2. sect. 11.

said to consider the whole of religion to consist in external ceremonies, without any internal connection with morality or the heart. The mere corporal performances of certain acts of devotion seem to be regarded as infallible means of salvation, without any sympathy of the mind and affections. The sacrament is imagined to be a miraculous act, which effectually expunges all past sins, without repentance, or intention of amendment. Hence none are more punctual in the observance of the rights of the church than the determined votaries of pleasure, who, as soon as the ceremony is ended, abandon themselves without controul and without remorse to the empire of the passions, until their presence is required at the next religious ceremony †.

This grossness of conception with respect to divine matters is said to be most conspicuous among the Neapolitans, but to prevail in general throughout Italy. The churches are decorated with the utmost magnificence, inasmuch that their grandeur and beauty, joined with the pomp of worship exhi-

† This account of the superstition of the Italians is not taken from any protestant travellers, but from Catholics, particularly l'Abbé Richard, tome 1. discours preliminaire, p. 36—43. Under the term Roman Catholics are comprehended a vast number of men of various nations, who, though they agree in the externals of religion, are extremely different in sentiments and opinions; some being of enlightened minds, of refined benevolence, and universal charity, without regard to difference of sect; while others appear to be absolute polytheists and idolaters, actuated with a rancorous hatred against people of all other denominations of religion. Between the former and the latter are several intermediate degrees.

bited

bited in them, seem calculated to elevate the soul toward its sublime Author; but the religious ideas of the multitude seem almost confined to material objects: they appear to regard the images of saints, which are numerous throughout the country, as real divinities present to the senses. Hence it frequently happens here, as well as in Spain and Portugal, the two great realms of Christian idolatry, that when petitions addressed to the saints are not granted, the petitioners, in violent resentment, insult and maltreat the images in a most outrageous manner. One use, however, which is made of these images, appears to be only an innocent mode of amusing the populace. It is that of marching in procession on Sundays and holidays after divine service. The image of the tutelar saint of the place is carried by the priests in their robes. The cross precedes: the inhabitants of the village all follow in pairs, the men with men, the women with women; and the train is closed by a wooden crucifix, or a saint, carried by one of the lustiest of the company.

Among the objects of Italian superstition holy relics hold no inconsiderable rank. These are believed to be parts of the bodies, the furniture, or something also belonging to ancient saints and martyrs. In this class are pieces of wood, supposed to be parts of the true cross, on which the Prince of martyrs made expiation for the sins of mankind. To all these sacred remains profound respect is paid, and miraculous powers are ascribed. In several parts of the kingdom of Naples is a species of relic derived

derived from the Greeks, who for a long time had intercourse with this country. This is a substance pretended to be portions of the blood of martyrs preserved in vials, and rendered solid by age, but liquefying miraculously on certain occasions. Thus, among other instances which might be adduced, at Bisceglia in the province of Terra di Bari, is exhibited the blood of Pantaleon and two other martyrs; and at Naples is shewn in a vial an ounce of the blood of Saint Januarius, which becomes fluid when brought near the bust of the Saint, in which his head is preserved. This miracle is commonly performed three times in the year; but from inexperience in the performers, or some other cause, it sometimes fails, which causes great discontent among the inhabitants*.

Loretto.

A relic, which seems to merit notice is the *Santa Casa*, or Holy House, in the town of Loretto, which town is at present neither large nor very rich, situate in the dominions of the Pope in the Marche of Ancona, on a long hill, about three miles from the Adriatic. The *Santa Casa* is supposed to be the identical house in which the Blessed Virgin lived in the town of Nazareth, and to have been transported in the thirteenth century by angels from Palestine to Loretto. It is built of common Italian brick, 32 feet in length, 14 in breadth, and about 18 in height, with a roof of about 5 feet elevation. It is enclosed in a case of pure marble, between which and the brick wall all around a small va-

* Moore, vol. 3. letter 65. Swinburne, vol. 1. sect. 23.

cant space is left. The holy edifice with its casing stands within the great church of Loretto. Over the Chimney, or hearth, stands the image of the Holy Virgin, about four feet high, with the complexion and features of a negro, doubtless totally unlike the original.

Loretto, on account of its holy cabin, is the greatest place of pilgrimage in the Christian world. Religious visitants are every day flocking into the town, so that their number in the year is prodigious; yet not so great, nor containing so many persons of rank, as in former times; most of the pilgrims at present being poor people, who are supported in their journey by charitable institutions: but even as yet, people of better circumstances "are frequently brought to disagreeable dilemmas by rash vows of going to Loretto, which their wives or daughters are apt to make on any supposed deliverance from danger." As it has been always the custom that wealthy pilgrims should make valuable presents to the Virgin, the riches, which have accumulated in the church of Loretto, are immense, and form the greatest mass of treasure to be found in any part of Europe. "To enumerate every particular would fill volumes. They consist of various utensils, and other things, in silver and gold; as lamps, candlesticks, goblets, crowns, and crucifixes; lambs, eagles, saints, apostles, angels, virgins, and infants: then there are cameos, pearls, gems, and precious stones, of all kinds and in great numbers. It is said that the pieces of silver, which fill many presses in the treasury of this church, are occasionally

occasionally melted down by his Holiness for the use of the state; and also, that the most precious of the jewels are picked out, and sold for the same purpose; false stones being substituted in their room †."

Religious
establish-
ments

If to the treasure of the Loretan temple we should add that of all the other churches and convents in Italy, the sum would be enormous, as wealth lies consecrated to saints in the Italian churches in general, particularly in those of Naples, where the churches are as much superior to those of Rome in the ostentatious ornaments of consecrated treasure, as they are inferior to them in elegance of architecture, and true taste of embellishment †. In a country, whose churches and convents possess such masses of unproductive riches, the ecclesiastical establishments may naturally be expected to be very great. Very probably above a third of all the revenues of the peninsula belong to the clergy. The number of monks and friars of all sorts appears not to be less than 100,000, besides the secular clergy and a multitude of nuns. In Rome alone the priests and other male ecclesiastics amount to above 7000 §.

† Moore, vol. 1. letter 31 and 32. Vol. 2. letter 33. He adds, "This is an affair entirely between the Virgin and the Pope: if she does not, I know no other person who has a right to complain" See also Richard, tome 6. p. 442—454.

‡ Moore, vol. 2. letter 59.

§ Richard, tome 5. p. 114. Dict. de l'Italie, tome 1. p. 305. It is said that in the Sardinian dominions alone the clerical persons of both sexes amount to 350,000. This seems to be a vast exaggeration, and I imagine that we ought not to assign a greater number to all Italy.

Monastic

Monastic establishments carried to such excess must doubtless be allowed on the whole amount to be no small nuisance to a state; yet, we must at the same time admit that one happy effect arises from them, which is, that a large proportion of the peasantry enjoy a degree of ease and comfort by their means, which they might not otherwise find; for, it has been often observed that these monkish communities treat their tenants with a lenity seldom experienced under secular landlords. "A convent can have no incitement to severe and oppressive exactions from the peasants, except sheer avarice, a passion which never rises to such a height in a society where the revenue is in common, as in the breast of an individual, who is solely to reap the fruits of his own oppression. The peasants on the lands of convents, beside having easy rents, find affectionate friends and protectors in their masters, who visit them in sickness, comfort them in all distresses, and are of service to their families in various shapes ||.

The high dignified clergy are distinguished at Rome into three ranks, the cardinals, the prelates, and the bishops. The difference between the prelates and bishops is, that the former are bishops without sees, and reside at the Roman court; while the latter are obliged to residence in their respective dioceses*. The number of archbishops in Italy is commonly reckoned 38; that of bishops is not so easily ascertained, since his Holiness some-

|| Moore, vol. 3. letter 73.

* Richard, tome 5. p. 110.

times suppresses old bishoprics, and sometimes creates new: they are however numerous enough, for, in the kingdom of Naples alone they amount to 107. Their revenues in general are not great: an Italian writer affirms † that the annual rents of the cardinals residing in Italy exceed not 4000 pounds to each. A bishop of 2000 pounds a year is comparatively very rich, and several archbishops have a less income than this, as, for instance, the archbishop of Bari whose revenue falls considerably short of 1200 pounds yearly ‡. The bishop of Chiusi is said to have only 150 pounds of annual income §. Many of the inferior clergy in several parts of the country are extremely poor, as it has been observed particularly in the Sardinian and Genoese territories; and it is said that the maintenance of the mendicant friars hardly amounts to sixpence a day.

Hospitals.

Next to the ecclesiastical establishments we may place the hospitals, since the erection and endowment of these arose from religious motives. In the magnitude, the number, and the magnificence, of edifices appropriated to the accommodation of the sick, the orphans, and the poor in general, Italy is rivalled by no country in the world. The united revenues of all the cardinals residing in Italy are said by a writer || of that country to be scarcely equal to a third of those of the hospitals of Rome alone. These institutions, we must confess, cha-

† Baretti, vol. 1. p. 73.

‡ Swinburne, vol. 1. sect. 24.

§ Martyn, p. 321.

|| Baretti, vol. 1. p. 73.

ritable as they are, have been carried farther than is quite consistent with the good of the community, as their excess encourages the laziness and improvidence of the common people. That which is called the hospital *di San Spiritu in Saffia*, or *Archispedale*, at Rome, is capable of accommodating above 2000 sick, beside all the foundling children who are brought to it*. That which at Milan bears the name of *lo Spedale Maggiore* entertains 4000 persons †. That of the *Annonciade* at Naples is hardly inferior to either of the above, and a great number of others might be noticed richly endowed for the reception of the unfortunate of every denomination.

The best kind of religious foundations are uni-
versities, and of these Italy may boast a considera-
ble number, among which are those of Padua, Tu-
rin, Pisa, Milan, Naples, Bologna, and Rome. In
the last mentioned city is a whole multitude of col-
leges, the principal one of which is that of *Sapienza*,
in which a great number of professors are employ-
ed in the various branches of erudition: but the
college *de Propaganda Fide* at Rome is more re-
markable on account of the great variety of mo-
dern languages taught in it for the qualifying of
missionaries, who are sent hence to many parts of
the globe for the purpose of making proselytes to
the Romish faith.

Not only in the colleges and monasteries, but
also in the palaces of princes and nobles, are lib-

Litera-
ture and
arts.

* Richard, tome 5. p. 218. † Richard, tome 1. p. 253.

raries, some of which contain many thousands of manuscripts and printed volumes. Literature was in the middle of the fifteenth century imported from Greece into Italy, and thence was diffused to other parts of Europe. Its culture among the Italians, in that and the following century, gave them so great a degree of superiority, that, not without some justice, they accounted all the other European nations barbarous in comparison of themselves. Some eminent promoters of mathematical and physical knowledge appeared; history was cultivated with extraordinary success; and it has been observed that *Ariosto* and *Tasso*, two of the three great poets † produced in modern times, were of Italian birth.

But, since these flourishing periods, learning has so much declined in this country, that, though doubtless many individuals of profound erudition may still be found in it, the Italians, taken in a collective sense, may be pronounced an ignorant people in comparison of the Britons, French, or Germans. The causes of this melancholy deterioration, among a people inferior to none in natural abilities, are to be sought in their political and ecclesiastical systems. The time of the students in the universities is wasted in a fruitless application to scholastic divinity, sophistical modes of argumentation, and such barren subjects, which, instead of expanding and illuminating, contract and darken the understanding. No book can be published without a previous examination and approbation of two, or

† The third is Milton.

more licensers, appointed by the civil and spiritual courts, who, from ignorance, vanity, or envy, are apt to raise so many objections, as to make the author sick of the business; and who, at least, will suffer nothing to pass, which squares not with the received notions, or prejudices, with respect to religion and government. Writings of a liberal kind, composed by men of superior perspicuity of thought, are concealed in their closets, or communicated only in a private manner to friends. Thus, while bright reason dares not to disclose her beauteous form to the public eye, the circle of liberal information is narrow, the generous effusions of the soul are stifled, and the best faculties of man lie dormant.

The fine arts, in which the Italians, in the propitious ages above mentioned, maintained a great supereminence; and which are less liable than literature to be debased by tyrannical systems of religion or government, have also declined, but not to so low a degree. In architecture, sculpture, and painting, the natives of this peninsula seem still to have some superiority over other nations. Their pre-eminence is indubitable in the number and excellence of the specimens of these arts which decorate their country; as also in music, in which no people can with them justly claim a competition.

Music and singing are the chief entertainment of Theatres. the Italian stage. The dramatic writings are mostly very mean compositions, abounding in what the Italians call *concetti*, frivolous conceits, which unmeritedly pass among them for witty expressions.

At

At Rome female performers are not permitted on the stage, where their place is awkwardly and unnaturally supplied by eunuchs in female dress. In general the tragedians of Italy are accounted very bad; the comedians excellent. The latter display extraordinary comic powers, particularly in a kind of burlesque plays, called *Comedie dell'arte*, in which the plot is so laid, that the speeches of the actors are their own extemporaneous compositions. But, whatever may be the merit of the performers, the Italians, though they frequent the theatre more than any other people, seldom pay attention to what passes on the stage, and seem to assemble thither merely as to a place of public resort, where they may see a variety of company and converse together. This being their object, the noise and confusion is commonly so great, that those few, who go for the sake of the exhibition, can seldom hear what the actors are endeavouring to convey to the ears of the assembly †.

Though the Italian stage is still in a state of shameful imperfection, commonly exhibiting low buffoonery, fit only for the entertainment of ignorant rabble; yet, in the grandeur of the structures erected for these exhibitions, no country in the world equals Italy. Theatres are surprisingly numerous in the Italian towns; many of them of a size and magnificence elsewhere unequalled; and some almost rivalling in magnitude, but not indeed

† Richard, tome discours prelim. p. 105—108. 49—52. tome 2. 479. Baretti, vol. 1. p. 127—143.

in strength of masonry, the fabrics of this kind among the ancient great possessors of this country. Vast and splendid theatres are to be seen at Turin, Rome, Naples, and other cities, but the greatest of all is that of Parma, which is capable of containing at least eight thousand spectators.

As the busts and statues, the specimens of ancient sculpture, which still remain, demonstrate the superiority of the ancients in this art over the moderns; so they also afford some opportunity of comparing the present to the former occupants of this country with respect to their personal conformation. A judicious traveller †, imagining that he perceived a great resemblance between many of the living countenances, which he daily saw in Rome, and the ancient busts and statues in that city, was induced to believe that a greater number of the genuine descendants of the old Romans are still to be found in Italy than we are apt to suppose. Another ‡, not less respectable, has observed the true old Grecian features in some parts of southern Italy formerly inhabited by the ancient Grecians. It may not be improbable that many descendants of the ancient Italian tribes, with little mixture of foreign blood, may still subsist in the Appennine chain, particularly in the south. But, if, from a view of the history of Italy, we consider what numbers were incessantly pouring into this country from various parts of Asia, Africa, and Europe,

Inhabitants.

† Moore, vol. 2. letter 51.

‡ Swinburne, vol. 1. Sect. 6.

during

during the time of the Roman greatness, mostly in the state of slaves, but partly also as voluntary emigrants, or military men; what numbers were sent abroad in those times as Roman colonists to different regions; what multitudes were slaughtered by the northern barbarians in the decline, and after the fall of the Roman empire; and what multitudes of these barbarians fixed their abode in Italy; we shall be inclined to consider the present inhabitants of this peninsula, collectively viewed, as a people of as mixed an origin as any in Europe, whatever similitude they have in general among themselves by intermarriages, and the operation of climate in a course of so many centuries.

The multitudes of foreign slaves and others, who were collected in Italy in the flourishing state of the Roman empire, seem to have always learned the Latin, the vernacular tongue of the ancient Romans, and to have made no change in the language of the country, more than is now occasioned in the British colonies of America by the importation of Negroes: but, when the fierce northern barbarians laid low in the dust the pride of Rome, and established their seats in this charming peninsula, though they endeavoured to adopt the speech of the more polished people whom they conquered, yet they gave not themselves the trouble of learning the inflexions of the Latin words, but made use of prepositions and articles, which, with the introduction of some new words and other alterations, quite changed the language; insomuch that the Italian of the present day, though it bears a nearer resemblance

Language.

blance than any other modern language of Europe to the Latin, is yet totally distinct from it.

As different tribes of barbarians seated themselves in different parts of the peninsula, this with other casualties occasioned a variation of speech, which, by reason of the divided state of Italy into several unconnected governments, subsists in full force; no other country in Europe of equal extent having in it so great a variety of dialects. These differ so much not only in words, but also still more in the turn of phrase and the idiom, that commonly the subjects of one state are in their proper dialect unintelligible to those of another *. The standard dialect of the Italian, which authors imitate in their writings, and preachers in their sermons, is that of the Tuscans, who were the first and greatest improvers of literature and the arts in Italy; yet the pronunciation is said to be purest in Rome †. The Italian appears to be the softest and most harmonious language of modern Europe, at the same time that it is nervous, and is so remarkably adapted to poetical composition, that the habit of what the Italians call *improvvisare*, that is, to make extemporaneous verses on any given subject, is quite common, particularly in Tuscany. Persons accustomed to this mode of versification challenge one another in the public walks, and maintain the contest for hours together, leaving the arbitration of the laurel to the surrounding audience ‡.

* Baretti, vol. 2. p. 128. Piozzi, p. 219, 497.

† Richard, tome 1. Discours prelim. p. 125.

‡ Baretti, vol. 2. p. 122. Richard, tome 3. p. 307.

The gentry of Piedmont, and other parts which lie near France, speak only the French tongue. Some dialects of the peasants in Lombardy and other territories appear to have hardly any thing of Italian in them, and two are known to have no analogy at all with that language; one of these is spoken by a small nation, or tribe of people, dwelling between Verona and the Alps, whose origin is unknown; § the other by the Albanese of Calabria, whose ancestors after the death of Scanderbeg, and the conquest of their country by the Turks, took refuge in the Neapolitan dominions ||.

Persons.

The people of the different provinces of Italy differ much less in the lineaments of the body than in language; yet, in these also a considerable variation may be found: the varieties, however, of this kind are not accurately stated by travellers, nor are such in general so easily described, as observed or conceived. The Italians, considered in a general sense, appear to be rather of a tall, than of a low stature; of a clear brown complexion, somewhat less swarthy than the Spaniards, but less fair than the Britons or Germans; less corpulent also than the last named people, but by no means less robust. The finest made men are said to be those of Calabria*; and it has been observed of some others also in the kingdom of Naples, that they have “such well proportioned limbs, that they

§ Baretti, vol. 1. p. 98.

|| Swinburne, vol. 1. sect. 46.

* Baretti, vol. 2. p. 143.

might serve for models in any academy of design †." How far the robustness of frame may contribute, together with the temperature of the air, to that ease of parturition, which is so happily experienced by the females of southern Italy, medical men may judge. About Taranto it is said to be impossible to cite an instance of death occasioned by parturition ‡; and in Calabria "it is a common thing for a woman far gone with child to go up to the forest for fuel, and to be there surprised with the pains of child-birth, perhaps hastened by her toil. She is nowise dismayed by the solitude all around her, or the distance from home, but delivers herself of the infant, which she folds up in her apron, and, after a little rest, carries to her cottage §."

The Italians have mostly sparkling black eyes, and many of them an uncommonly fine style of countenance strongly marked with expression. The aquiline nose may frequently be observed. The hair is mostly dark brown or black; but the women in some places, particularly in the south, give it a yellow flaxen tinge, by washing it every week with a lye of wood-ashes, or by making use of a yellow powder ||.

It has been observed that the beautiful women of Italy have commonly more of majesty, and less of

† Swinburne, vol. 1. sect. 6.

‡ Swinburne, vol. 1. sect. 35.

§ Swinburne, vol. 1. sect. 37.

|| This kind of yellow locks seems to be the flava cæsaries of the ancient Romans. Swinburne, vol. 1. sect. 13. Richard, tome 1. p. 151.

softness,

softness, than those of Britain *; and that though the number of fine female persons may be much less in the former than in the latter country, yet in that number more are commonly found of a very striking beauty among the Italian than the British ladies, at least with respect to the character of countenance. Those females, who are distinguished by their beauty in the middle parts of Italy, have commonly "a great profusion of dark hair, which seems to encroach upon the forehead, rendering it short and narrow; the nose generally either aquiline, or continued in a straight line from the lower part of the brow; a full and short upper lip;" and large, black, sparkling eyes. The eye is wonderfully expressive, and some imagine that it says too much †. The Italian ladies, however, excepting where the modes of France are fully established, depend on their native charms, and have not adopted the reprehensible fashion of making an artificial complexion by the assistance of paint.

Habits.

The habits of the Italians are so various as to baffle all attempts to describe them. This variation is much greater among the female than the male sex, and much greater in the lower than the higher classes. The gentlemen of Italy in general are habited in like manner as in other parts of Europe, having nothing very peculiar in their attire: but from this we must admit some very considerable deviations, particularly at Venice and Genoa. In

* Baretti. Piozzi.

† Moore, vol. 2. letter 51.

the former of these cities the wearing of the sword is prohibited, which in the rest of the peninsula constitutes part of the dress of a gentleman. The people of this city commonly wear a large cloak as an outside garment, the fashion of which, with respect to its color, is liable to be changed; and are allowed by government to conceal their faces under masks on so many occasions, that both sexes make use of this disguise in public assemblies near half the year. The Venetian noblemen, with their secretaries and others concerned in the administration of government, have for dress an enormous wig without hat or cap, and a black cloak, which is lighter and shorter in summer than in winter. The Genoese noblemen carry a wig of smaller size than that of Venice, black cloaths cut nearly in the French fashion, and a black cloak hanging down along the back, and a plain hat mostly under the arm. At Rome many laymen wear a clerical dress, which causes the number of ecclesiastics, above 7000 in itself, to appear still greater than it really is.

The ladies of Italy in general use the dresses of France, but have also other habits, different in different places, some of which have a resemblance to those of Spain. Their veils are of various lengths, some covering only the head, some the head and shoulders, some half the body, and some the whole body. Their head-dresses are indescribably varied, as also some other parts of their apparel. The zendado is much used in several parts of Italy. This is a piece of black silk, which covers the head and falls down to the waist; is crossed on
the

the waist before, and tied behind at the back. The robes of ceremony of the Venetian, Genoese, and some other ladies, are black. In some parts they wear a black petticoat outside the gown, when they appear abroad; and in some places, as at Naples, when they go without a carriage, they have two petticoats, one of which hangs down, and the other is turned over the head, in like manner as country girls in the British Islands draw the tail of the gown over the head to protect them from cold or rain.

The men among the citizens and lower orders in several places, as at Naples, have a cloak over the rest of their apparel. The poorest kind of peasants in the south are commonly without any covering for the head, legs, or feet; cloathing themselves with only a coarse shirt and trousers in summer, and a very ordinary coat in winter. The peasants of the north are much better apparelled; and in general the Italian peasantry of the male sex have no very striking dissimilitude in the make of their clothes from people of their class in the neighbouring countries, though some differences may be observed among themselves; for instance, in the southern Calabria bonnets are used; in the northern hats.

The female peasantry of each district are commonly habited alike, but each district has mostly its peculiar mode, at least in the head-dress; and the attire of the holiday differs from that which is used at other times. To particularize all the varieties would be impossible even if it were a matter of utility. In some of the southern Appennines the
veils,

veils, the stockings, and most of the garments are of a red color. The women of the territory of Lucca wear a gown buttoned close, the sleeves of which are long, and on the head a white muslin kerchief in the form of a turban, without any hat. The hair is ordinarily confined with a silk net in some parts, as in Tuscany and Naples. The attire of the peasant girls of the former country is remarkably pretty, consisting commonly of a scarlet petticoat, ear-rings, necklaces, a little straw-hat on one side of the head which is dressed with flowers, and, instead of a gown, a jacket without sleeves, which leaves no other covering for the upper part of the arm than the shift-sleeves, which are tied with ribbons. This kind of hat, adorned with ribbons, flowers, or feathers, is used in some other parts, as in the Duchy of Parma, and gives to its wearers a more smart coquetish air than is elsewhere to be observed in that class of women*.

In the article of food we find some resemblance between the present generation and their predecessors of old; that predilection for ortolans, beccaficos, and other delicious little birds, for which the ancient Romans were remarkable, prevailing in Italy to this day. As the sheep, excepting those which are fed in mountainous pastures, yield not generally a good kind of mutton, that species of viand is in little estimation. Beef, excepting a few

* Baretti, vol. 2. p. 141—143. Piozzi, p. 40, 41, 129, 130, 214, 237, 328. Richard, tome 1. p. 19, 169, 170. tome 2. p. 14, 446, 447, 448, 498—501. tome 5. p. 147, 234. Swinburne, vol. 1. sect. 6. v. 2. sect. 65, 66. Moore, vol. 3. letter 71.

nice parts made into soup, is almost wholly confined to the vulgar, who are unacquainted with the method of roasting, and either boil, stew, or bake it, with a high seasoning of pepper, garlic, or onions. One of the most substantial dishes admitted at genteel tables is veal, which is firmer than that of Britain, as the calves are commonly not killed before the age of six or seven months.

The ordinary dinners among the better sort of people commonly begin with soup, rice, macaroni, or legumes: then comes the boiled meat, afterward the roast, and lastly the cheese and fruit. The women generally drink only water at dinner, the men a few glasses of wine. At the end of dinner all is removed to make room for the liquors, and, when the servants have dined, another remove is made for the introduction of the coffee. Supper begins with some sort of salad and ends with fruit. Young people breakfast on bread either alone, or with the addition of cheese or fruit. Adults drink chocolate or coffee at this meal, and sometimes tea, which is gradually coming more into use.

All along the Appennine chain the inhabitants during the greater part of the year subsist almost wholly on chestnuts, which are often ground into meal and baked into bread: elsewhere the chief sustenance of the peasants is *Polenta*, by which is meant a kind of hasty pudding, or stirabout, made of the flour of maize, with a little butter spread over it, and also with the addition of a little cheese or walnuts, when circumstances allow it. Some have scarcely any thing else to support nature than bread

bread and water seasoned with garlic or onions, or perhaps a few dried olives or grapes. Many subsist all the year on bread and pilchards. The bread is commonly of wheat flour, heavy and hard, as being baked with little or no yeast. To the common people of the towns, particularly of Naples, as well as to the gentry, iced water is become by habit almost a necessary of life in the heats of summer; inso-much that a failure of snow would be as distressing in some places as a scarcity of bread. For the supply of this article of luxury, ice and snow are reposed in caverns of the mountains, and brought every morning to the towns*.

With respect to manners a variety much above Manners. common must be expected among the Italians; as the forms of government, to which they are severally subject, are not the same; and as the subjects of the different governments have scarcely more intercourse than the inhabitants of different islands. This dissociation prevents not only a nearer assimilation of language and manners, but also a diminution of that spirit of enmity, with which the subjects of the several states have been long observed

* Baretti, vol. 2. p. 130—140. Piozzi, p. 40. Swinburne, vol. 1. sect. 6, 44, 48. Richard, tome 2. p. 569. vol. 5. p. 233.

Mr. Swinburne informs us that about the towns of Casalnuovo and Lecce in the kingdom of Naples, many of the lower sort of people eat the flesh of dogs, and that "at Bari and Francavilla horse-flesh is said to be publicly sold in the market, and the tail left on, to shew the wretched purchasers what beast the meat belonged to." Swinburne, vol. 1. sect. 28.

to be mutually affected, and which in some instances is carried to a degree of rancor: thus the people of Rome, Naples, Florence, and Genoa, are remarked for a high reciprocal aversion. If we were to select any people of Italy, whose character should be made a standard for that of the Italians in general, this distinction seems due to the inhabitants of the Roman state, as they appear to be most remarkable for those peculiarities, which distinguish the present possessors of this peninsula from other Europeans. Those who dwell in the vicinity of France have assumed the garb and language of the French, with an awkward imitation of their manners. Some of those who inhabit the kingdom of Naples, especially the capital, have some resemblance to the Spaniards.

The fine expressive style of the Italian countenance ought to bespeak a corresponding frame of soul; and doubtless no people surpass the Italians in a lively quick sensibility, and a true vivacity of mind, quite distinct from that flow of animal spirits, which characterizes the French. Not only their looks, but also their gestures convey much meaning, and are even vehement in certain cases: yet gravity is a characteristic of Italian demeanor; they commonly walk with a slow composed pace; a kind of sedate serious air accompanies even their most lively sallies of gaiety and humor, and the female countenance is often observed to display a certain animated languor not less engaging than the brisk smart look of the French ladies. Fettered by superstition and the thralldom of arbitrary government,

ment, the Italians exert not that energy of thought, nor are elevated with that liberality of sentiment, which can be diffused only in countries where civil and religious freedom is enjoyed; but that liberty and culture alone are wanting to make their genius shine with eminent brightness, is evinced by the rapid progress which they formerly made in literature and the arts, three of which, music, sculpture, and painting, they have carried to a pitch of improvement elsewhere unequalled in modern times*.

The acuteness of the Italian genius has in past periods been exerted in the intricate mazes of political intrigue, and produced so many deeply complicated schemes, that Italian subtilty became a proverb. This intriguing spirit, with its necessary concomitant, an impenetrable secrecy, has been supposed to influence the general manners of the people, creating a guarded reserve in conversation, and a habit of dissembling the real sentiments of the mind†. But whatever degree of refined cunning

* Moore, vol. 2. letter 36, 43, 51.

It was a remark of the famous Charles the fifth, emperor of Germany, that while the French with an appearance of levity and folly were not without their share of wisdom; and the Spaniards with an external semblance of wisdom had as much folly as any people; the Italians had not only the appearance, but also the reality, of sagacity and deliberation.

† *I pensieri stretti, ed il viso sciolto*, the thoughts close, and the countenance open, seems to be a rule with many of the Italians, and has met with the approbation of Lord Chesterfield in his letters, a book which has misled many, who have not considered its spirit and design.

may be in the composition of the Italians, the spirit of their governments may perhaps account sufficiently for their habitual caution in discourse; a freedom of speech on any thing which touches religion or politics being often very unsafe. If to this restraint of the tongue we add the general ignorance of the Italians, we can hardly expect their conversation to be of a kind superior to what, as we are told, commonly prevails, an insipid uninteresting chat on the subject of the weather, or other trite trivial matters, circulated in repeated rotation. Too much attention also is observed to be given to ceremony, which, though the Italians are by no means deficient in politeness and civility, renders their social intercourse less pleasing to a rational mind, than if forms were less the object, and propriety of conduct conceived as immediately depending on reason and sound judgment †.

Among the many who may be excepted in some measure from the above general remarks are the people of Milan and the neighbouring parts, who, though ignorant enough, have a frankness in their manner; and the gentry of both sexes of Genoa, who are said to be very affable, and to be better acquainted with literature than the rest of the Italians §.

Whatever propensity to disguise the thoughts can with truth be ascribed to the people of this peninsula, none at present carry to such a pitch the cus-

† Richard, tome 1. discours prelim. p. 44—46. tome 5. p. 153—155.

§ Baretti, vol. 2. p. 91.

tom of disguising the person in fictitious dress; the mask being more in use here than in any other country. Masquerading, in the day as well as in the night, is the darling amusement, not only of the high, but also of the low ranks. In the days of the Carnival, or time of festivity which precedes Lent, when the vizard and whimsical habiliment are every where permitted, all is bustle and jollity; the grave Italians become actuated with mirthful animation, and whole troops of harlequins, with other whimsical characters, display their various tricks. The grandest spectacle of this kind is exhibited in Rome in a street called the Corso, where not less than 10,000 well dressed persons in masquerade may be seen at once on foot, beside about 1000 carriages moving regularly in lines, of which above 200 are superbly, as well as fantastically decorated. In this festive scene each carriage is commonly provided with some bags of small, soft, white pellets, resembling sugar plumbs, which are jocosely thrown by handfals directly in the faces of people in other carriages which happen to come in the way. In Venice, where the mask is in much more frequent use than elsewhere in Italy, it is often assumed merely as a genteel kind of dishabille; a vizard stuck in the hat, together with a black mantle trimmed with black lace, being a kind of dress in which a man may with propriety appear in any assembly in that city||.

|| Richard, tome 5. p. 182—189. Moore, vol. 1. letter 21. vol. 2. letter 52.

The

The expressive gesticulations, which are more natural or habitual to the Italians than to most other people, and which they are apt to use in common discourse, seem to qualify them in a more than ordinary manner for the theatre and the masquerade, in which fictitious characters are to be sustained. They carry their action in all its force to the bar and the pulpit. "The variety and efforts of gesticulation in many of their preachers are amazing, and far exceed even the dramatical vehemence of a French actor *;" less calculated to excite devotion than laughter in a northern European, or at least to give the idea of a theatrical performance. This violence of action is still greater if possible at the bar; the pleaders in some places exhibiting almost every gesture, contorsion, and grimace of limbs, body, and visage, which imagination can form.

Perhaps the passion for the masquerade may owe some of its warmth to the liberty which a fantastic disguise gives to different ranks of people to mingle together with less distinction than ordinary. In Italy birth leaves an impassable line between the gentleman and the plebeian, an impregnable rampart, through which no force of merit or even of riches can break its way. Gentry and nobility seem in this country synonymous terms; no middle rank subsisting between those who are of noble and those who are of plebeian blood. A person born in the latter degree must always remain in it, nor, in general, is any one of that description admissible into the social circles of the gentry, whatever may

* Review of Nations.

be the sum of the accomplishments or wealth which might be urged in favor of that right †. Yet notwithstanding these high ancestral notions, the Italians have not adopted that unreasonable idea, which prevails in Germany and many other countries, that the occupation of a merchant degrades nobility; for, men of the highest titles have engaged in commerce: some nobles at Venice, Genoa, and Ancona, trade publicly in their own names; and, among many other instances, which might be adduced, a Duke at Naples, and a Marquis at Rome, have been known to be the chief bankers †. This rectitude of opinion, amid a multitude of deviations, was acquired when Italy rose into wealth and splendor by traffic, and furnished the rest of Europe with the products of the East.

Not incongruous to the pride of blood among the Italians is their admiration of lofty titles which carry in them an air of personal dignity, and their extraordinary propensity to almost every species of pomp and ostentation. In Italy are supposed to have originated, and thence to have emanated to the rest of Europe, those titular appellations, which are intended to discriminate the different ranks of modern society, and in contradistinction to which the simplicity of the ancient Greeks and Romans in this respect appears remarkable. The spirit of making distinctions by the mode of expression with regard to rank or dignity has observably tinctured

† Piozzi, p. 49, 69, 75, 223.

† Baretti, vol. 1. p. 219.

the Italian tongue. Thus, for one instance, an individual is addressed in the third person singular, when a respectful or civil style of speaking is intended; in the second person plural, when condescension is denoted; and in the second singular, when a tone of authority or contempt is designed §.

The passion of the Italians for pomp and parade is extreme, and is generally indulged to the utmost extent of their finances in sumptuousness of attire, magnificence of building, and splendor of equipage. The quantity of jewels worn by females is really surprising: the wives and daughters of even ordinary farmers in Tuscany, where this class of people are richest, carry each the value of 40 or 50 pounds in garnets, pearls, and other such finery; and the full dress of a citizen, such as the wife of an inn-keeper at Florence, is sometimes worth no less than a thousand pounds ||. The houses of the nobility have a grand exterior show, and spacious lofty apartments, more calculated for ostentation than convenience. Italy is supposed to have as great a number of stately houses as both France and Britain together; but those of Britain are much more commodious, and furnished with better taste*. Such is the prevalence of pageantry, that the number of horses, carriages, and servants of a grandee, or of a high ecclesiastic, would be sufficient for a

§ Baretto, vol. 1. p. 114.

|| Piozzi, p. 214.

* Baretto, vol. 2. p. 243.

sovereign prince †; and so absurd are the notions of the people with regard to this kind of pomp, that it would be accounted an indelible disgrace to a gentleman to be seen on foot in the streets, or abroad, in the evening ‡.

As hardly one passion can be indulged to excess without the mortification of another, so the Italians appear to sacrifice much of the ease and comfort of life to the vanity of gaudy shew; for, beside the restraint imposed on their actions by regulated forms of pride and studied solemnity, they are obliged to live in great privacy and parsimony with respect to interior arrangements; retrenching as much as possible from the table and other departments within doors, to support the expence of exterior pomp. The grand mansions of the nobility contain splendid apartments which are never inhabited, and state-ly kitchens, in which a fire is very seldom seen. Neither their habitations nor their persons have that degree of cleanliness which may be thought expedient for a comfortable way of living. Under sumptuous robes dirty linen may too often be perceived; and many of the citizens have no shirts or shifts at all, but only the ends of sleeves, which give the appearance, without the reality, of these inner garments. The servants who compose the ostentatious trains of the nobility are mostly hired, in the manner of labourers, at the rate of about a shilling a day, including board wages. Many of them are married, and most of them, as soon as

† Swinburne, vol. i. sect. 6.

‡ Du Patty, p. 341.

the pageantry of the day is ended, retire to their own homes to sleep at night. This mode, however, seems more favorable both to population and morality than that of Britain, where marriage is generally a disqualification for menial service.

Hospitality and convivial mirth are little in practice among the present inhabitants of this country: not only frugality is an obstacle in this case, but also the custom so general in this climate of sleeping some hours in the evening in summer. On this account they go in dishabille to dinner, which in some parts of Italy is at twelve of the clock, and in others an hour or two later. The time of rising from their afternoon's repose is about six in the evening, when they dress, and go to display their finery in the places of public resort, or in private parties of amusement. The most frequent kind of social meeting is called in the language of the country *conversazione*, which in literal English signifies a conversation. This is a nocturnal assembly of persons of both sexes, somewhat like what has been named in London and Dublin a drum or a rout. In magnificent houses the company are served on these occasions with coffee, chocolate, lemonade, and iced confections; but this is not universally the custom, or at least these refreshments are furnished so sparingly, that in general almost the whole of the entertainment consists in the pleasure of seeing many persons in dress, and in being seen by them †.

Exempt

† Concerning their parsimony, interior economy, and conversations, see Richard, tome 1. discours prelim. p. 46—48.

Exempt from the general charge of inhospitality of the table are many of the northern Italians, particularly the inhabitants of Milan, whose plenteous boards and festive manners are remarkable in a country of such external grandeur and internal poverty. Perhaps the same people may form some exception from the character of strict sobriety which the Italians almost universally bear. Even the lowest classes are free from the bestial vice of drunkenness, and, like their superiors, regale themselves with lemonade, or with iced water, a beverage both pleasant and salubrious in hot climates. This refreshing liquor is purchased with as much avidity by the populace of Naples and other large towns, as ale and spirituous liquors are sought by people of their class in some other parts of Europe.

An imputation of indolence and effeminacy lies against the general mass of Italian people; and, doubtless, where the mind has no incentives to activity, where no adequate encouragement is offered to industry, where the soil yields abundantly without much labor, where very little fuel is required, and where idleness finds a large resource in hospitals and indiscriminate alms, no great vigor of intellect is to be expected in the higher classes, and no very steady habit of exertion to make provision for futurity in the lower. Yet, though an

p. 90. tome 2. p. 139. tome 3. p. 231. tome 5. p. 142—158, 234. Swinburne, vol. 1. sect. 5. Piozzi, p. 49. Moore, vol. 2. letter 36. Moore says, "that a *conversazione* is a place where there is no conversation."

indolent

indolent improvident turn of mind undoubtedly prevails in many parts, and above all in the Roman territories, it is far from being universal in this peninsula; many tracts of land are too well cultivated to admit the imputation, and the Genoese, in particular, are so industrious, that they are said enigmatically to eat stones, because they draw sustenance, as it were, from the rocks, by covering them with earth, and thereby forming an artificial soil*.

The sensibility of the Italians is very conspicuous in the effects of music on their frame. Of the charms of modulated sounds they seem susceptible in a degree much above all other nations. At the playing of uncommonly affecting airs they appear enraptured in such a manner "as if the soul were expiring in a torrent of delight†." The cultivation of the musical art in this country corresponds, as we may suppose, to the pleasure which it gives; the Italian performers being in a collective consideration, preferable to all others, in scientific and masterly execution: yet the ability of musical performance is, on account of its commonness, generally considered as but a mean accomplishment, so that few of the gentry give themselves any trouble to acquire it‡.

In the art of singing, the natural associate of music, the superiority of the Italians is also remarkable. Nature, which has endowed the inhabitants

* Baretti, vol. 1. p. 56, 57.

† Moore, vol. 2. letter 52.

‡ Baretti, vol. 1. p. 210—214.

of this peninsula with an extraordinary delicacy of the auditory nerves, has conferred on its females an uncommon fineness of the throat and sweetness of the voice. But unfortunately the Italians have not been content with the melody of the female voice, which, like the other endowments of that charming sex, carries in it a superior power of producing delight. They have made it a custom to emasculate great numbers of the other sex in early youth, in order that their choirs and theatres may be supplied with singers of at once a masculine strength, and female softness, of voice. Thus in Italy, especially at Rome, many eunuchs are found, while in no other part of Christian Europe this class of beings are known as a part of the community. In extenuation of this detestable custom it is said that the operation is not allowed to be performed without the consent of the patient, nor before the age of ten years: but at such an age the unhappy youth is unable to foresee the disadvantages of that condition of life, by the acceptance of which he becomes a sacrifice to the pleasures of the public, and to the interested views of his unnatural parents, or others, who persuade him to adopt it*.

As the people of this peninsula are of nice and quick feelings, their temper is irritable, and from some unfortunate circumstances both civil and religious, murders are more frequent here than in any other Christian country in Europe. These

* Richard, tome 5. p. 175, 176.

horrid

horrid acts however are unknown among the higher classes, and are quite confined to the vulgar, among whom a disrespectful word from an equal is apt to kindle rage, and this is often followed by a mortal stab of the *stiletto*, which is a sort of poniard, or long sharp-pointed knife with a kind of guard, generally carried by the common people. To account for the frequency of assassination among the Italians, who are known to be of as temperate and sober a life as any other nation, and of a more than ordinary mild and gentle disposition, some considerations are to be taken.

From very erroneous notions of honor it is accounted infamous to assist in the seizure of a culprit, so that, unless some who belong to the police happen to be present, the assassin may retire unmolested by the spectators of his crime, and may take refuge in some church or convent, or in some neighbouring state. The permission of religious places to be sanctuaries against justice has a lamentable effect. To see the sacred ministers of religion engaged in the protection of an assassin, and administering to his comfort, must greatly mitigate in the minds of the ignorant the idea of the crime. Even when a malefactor is taken, and consigned for punishment to the secular arm, the delays of justice are tedious, and, in most of the Italian states, a little interest in the mean time suffices to procure a pardon. If, notwithstanding all this, the criminal is executed, which rarely happens, a crowd of priests assemble about him, march in solemn procession, and behave upon the whole in such a manner,

manner, as to leave no doubt with the multitude that his soul is immediately received into the regions of bliss; and what more can be expected for the most innocent and meritorious, for the saint and the martyr? In fact, in this country of uncultivated reason and perverted religion, all compassion is felt for the offender, little or none for the injured, and hardly any concern is entertained for the peace of society*.

In Piedmont, where justice has been long administered with some degree of dispatch, assassination is less in practice than in most other states of Italy; and in Tuscany, where the government have forbid religious places to be any longer asylums for malefactors, this crime is become as infrequent as in other parts of Europe: doubtless the institution of a well regulated police, with a prompt and steady execution of justice, would quickly put an end to the nefarious custom throughout the peninsula; for, the common people of this country, though grossly ignorant, very few being taught to read, are generally compassionate, gentle, courteous, and obliging; humble to superiors, averse to sedition, and, when unprovoked, averse to violence of every kind, notwithstanding the frequent murders which are the consequences of sudden passion, and of the

* Richard, tome 5. p. 237—242. Piozzi, p. 76, 90. Barretti, vol. 1. p. 53. Moore, vol. 2. letter 43, 44. Doctor Moore attributes a contrary effect to the processions and prayers of the priests, but I cannot, in this instance, agree with this judicious traveller, to whose opinion that of Mr. Swinburne also is contrary. Swinburne, vol. 1. sect. 6.

well grounded hopes of impunity with respect to the law of God, of civil society, and the law of opinion. What acts of bloodshed would be committed by the populace of Ireland inflamed by intoxicating liquors, if to escape from justice were equally easy in this island as in Italy? In great and populous Italian cities, where the streets are without lamps and involved in darkness in the night, and where also the police is far from being efficient, riots are scarcely ever known. In the city of Naples, "even in the cruel famine of 1764, the only act of violence committed by a hungry populace increased to double its number by the concourse of peasants from the distant provinces, where all crops had failed, was to break open and pillage a single baker's shop †."

The mildness of Italian manners is observable not only in the peaceable demeanor of the common people, but also in the politeness and obliging behaviour of the gentry. The Tuscans are said to be the first among the inhabitants of this peninsula in gentleness and urbanity, and perhaps are not exceeded by any people in this respect: but no class of society in Italy are more courteous and obliging than the clergy, nor is this amiable character in them experienced more by any persons than by Britons and other foreigners, who, in a religious light, are considered by them as heretics and accursed.

In the conduct observed toward the fair sex, the suavity of manners in the gentry, and the inflamma-

† Swinburne, vol. 1. sect. 6. See also Moore, vol. 2. letter 55.

ble spirit of the common people, appear in strong colors. Ladies in this country are treated with a most respectful complaisance, and in a married state, have a much greater freedom with regard to the law of opinion, than in the north of Europe; their conduct not being subject to so rigid rules, particularly at Venice, where they enjoy as complete liberty as in any part of the globe. In general in Italy where disputes arise between husband and wife, and a separation takes place, the public voice with a laudable partiality is mostly in favor of the weaker party. All possible countenance is given to the lady, while the husband is less kindly received, as some hardness of heart is naturally suspected on his side*. How much more humane, generous, and rational is this, than the practice of Britain and other countries, where all indulgence is freely permitted to the man, and not a single grain of allowance made for the more defenceless and delicate party?

Among the common people jealousy predominates, and is more frequently than any other passion the cause of assassination. To visit, however innocently, the wife or mistress of a man of this class without his permission, would endanger a deadly thrust of the stiletto. Jealousy and assassination were in former times not confined to the vulgar, but prevailed as much in the higher classes. Ladies were confined and scrupulously watched before marriage by their nearest relations, and afterward by

* Piozzi, p. 74.

their husbands. This odious and despicable custom, degrading and insulting to females, who, in sense of honor and delicacy of sentiment, are superior to the other sex, at length gave way to the influence of French manners, which, though in some degree blameable, have on the whole amount greatly contributed to the melioration of Europe, even in nations the most opposite in character and disposition to the French. As mankind are apt, when they abandon one extreme, to fall into the opposite, the Italian gentry have adopted a practice called in their own language *la Cicisbeatura*, and in English *Cicisbeism*, which, though reprehensible enough, seems necessary in Italy to prevent a relapse into their former mode, to which this is beyond all comparison preferable.

Cicisbe-
ism.

This custom in its present modification is, that a lady must never be seen abroad with her husband, nor without another man at her elbow. By this it happens that at a *conversazione* more of the male than of the female sex are commonly seen, fashion not permitting any of the latter to appear without a male attendant. Each married lady has one, generally chosen by herself with the approbation of her husband, and originally denominated *Cicisbeo*†, from the whispering which sometimes happens between the lady and him, the Italian verb *Cicisbeare* signifying to whisper. This obsequious gentleman, called also *cavaliere Servente*, or knight attendant,

† According to the Italian mode of pronunciation the word is Chichisbeo, or tshitshisbeo.

“ visits the lady every forenoon at the toilet, where the plan for passing the evening is agreed upon : he disappears before dinner, for, it is usual all over Italy for the husband and wife to dine together tete-a-tete, except on great occasions, as when there is a public feast. After dinner the husband retires, and the *cicisbeo* returns and conducts the lady to the public walk, the *conversazione*, or the opera : he hands her about wherever she goes, presents her coffee, sorts her cards, and attends with the most pointed assiduity till the amusements of the evening are over : he accompanies her home, and delivers up his charge to her husband, who is then supposed to resume his functions †”

The chief inconvenience of this system seems to be that “ even when there is the greatest harmony subsisting between the husband and wife, and although each would prefer the other’s company to any other, still such is the tyranny of fashion, they must separate every evening ; he to play the *cavaliere servente* to another woman, and she to be led about by another man. Notwithstanding this inconveniency, the couples who are in this predicament are certainly happier than those whose affections are not centered at home. Some very loving couples lament the cruelty of this separation, yet the world in general seem to be of opinion that a man and his wife, who dine together every day, and lie together every night, may, with a proper exertion of philosophy, be able to support being

† Moore, vol. 3. letter 76.

afunder a few hours in the evening §." An attachment, however, seems generally to subsist between the lady and her gentleman usher, an attachment so permanent as to continue often in old age; constancy in love, whether Platonic or of another nature, being an estimable part of the Italian character.

The greatest evil, which has been apprehended from the system of cicisbeism, is the opportunity which it gives to violate the conjugal vow. It appears indeed that some cicisbeos are guilty of this violation, and that this happens even sometimes with the connivance of the husband, for pecuniary considerations. Sometimes also a woman may be obliged to grant favors even contrary to her wish, when she cannot otherwise procure this necessary satellite, as without one she cannot be seen in places of amusement ||. But instances of this kind are doubtless comparatively few. "The cicisbeo, in many instances, is a poor relation or humble friend, who, not being in circumstances to support an equipage, is happy to be admitted into all the societies, and to be carried about to public diversions as an appendage to the lady. I have known," says Doctor Moore, "numbers of those gentlemen, whose appearance and bodily infirmities carried the clearest refutation, with respect to themselves personally, of the scandalous stories of an improper connexion between cavaliere serventes and their mistresses.

§ Moore, vol. 3. letter 76.

|| Piozzi, p. 71, 72.

The humble and timid air which many of them betray in the presence of the ladies, and the perseverance with which they continue their services, notwithstanding the contemptuous stile in which they are often treated, is equally unlike the haughtiness natural to favored lovers, and the indifference of men fatiated with enjoyment. There are, it must be confessed, *cicisbeos* of a very different stamp, whose figure and manners might be found more agreeable to the ladies whom they serve than to their lords;” but many instances are known, “where the characters of the ladies are so well established, as not to be shaken either in the opinion of their acquaintances or husbands, although their *cavaliere serventes* are in every respect agreeable and accomplished*.”

On a full investigation it appears that the connexion between the lady and her *cicisbeo* is in general innocent, and that conjugal infidelity is not more prevalent in Italy than in countries where *cicisbeism* is unknown: nor ought this to seem strange, since experience shews that women are the surest guardians of their own honor; and that notwithstanding many contrary instances, yet on the whole amount, the human mind, in either sex, feels itself exalted by an unreserved confidence reposed in it, and acts with nobler sentiments than it otherwise would †.

“ Most

* Moore, vol. 3. letter 76.

† For *cicisbeism* see Baretti, vol. 1. p. 76—90. Richard, tome 1. p. 154—156. tome 5. p. 164, 165. Transient visitants of foreign countries are apt to fall into great mistakes when they
see

“ Most Englishmen will be astonished how men can pass so much of their time with women. This however will appear less surprising when they recollect that the Italian nobility dare not intermeddle with politics; can find no employment in the army or navy, and that there are no such amusements in the country as hunting or drinking. They tell you that nothing so effectually soothes the cares, and beguiles the tediousness of life, as the company of an agreeable woman; that though the intimacy should never exceed the limits of friendship, there is something more flattering and agreeable in it

see usages very different from those of their own nation. Thus many travellers have insinuated, and some, particularly Mr. Sharpe, have positively asserted, that Italian *cicisbeism* is a regular system of adultery. Thus also the Greek Emperor Manuel, who visited Britain in the year 1400, asserted that the English had a total disregard of conjugal honor and female chastity. His account proceeds in these words. “ In their mutual visits, as their first act of hospitality, the guest is welcomed in the embraces of their wives and daughters. Among friends they are lent and borrowed without shame; nor are the islanders offended at this strange commerce and its inevitable consequences.” A Turk or other Oriental of the present time would be apt to form the same conclusion at his first entrance into the British islands, as he could not conceive it at all probable, that two persons of different sexes should kiss, or converse privately together, without the commission of the last act of familiarity. Yet it is certain that in some of the British colonies of North America it is a common thing for a young man and young woman to lie together all night in bed, in perfect privacy, without any notion thence arising of a violation of chastity or of delicacy, more than would be supposed from the kissing or private conversation of two such persons in Britain or Ireland.

than

than male friendships; that they find the female heart more sincere, less interested, and warmer in its attachments; that women in general have more delicacy †, and, in short, an indescribable amiableness, which renders their acquaintance far more desirable than that of males to men of refined sentiments.

After the above brief statement of cicisbeism, a custom which has been much misunderstood, and which, though reigning throughout the rest of Italy, is not as yet established in Piedmont §, and some neighbouring territories, where the people are almost intirely French in modes and language, I shall notice two or three detached customs, and conclude this sketch of Italian manners.

Hunting on horseback is very little known in Races. Italy; but in the taking of wild animals, particularly birds, various ways are used, two of which have been already described. A diversion which seems peculiar to the Italians is the races of horses without riders. These are generally exhibited in the great streets of the towns, as in the Corso at Rome. Six or seven horses commonly start at once amid the deafening acclamations of the mob, who line the course on either side. The falling of a piece of canvas stretched across before the horses is the signal for their starting. Across the back of each is a narrow strap with an ivory ball, set with spikes, fixed at either end, by which his flanks are stimulated as he runs. This seems as unnecessary

† Moore, vol. 3. letter 76.

§ Baretti, vol. 2. p. 89.

as it is cruel, for the animals are trained to the sport, and exert themselves with all the emulation, with which men could be actuated in the same situation; the victors demonstrating signs of triumph, and the vanquished evidently depressed with shame ||. Races of chariots, like those of the ancients, are sometimes also exhibited; each chariot drawn by two horses, and managed by a driver*.

Funerals. Funerals in Italy are conducted with great solemnity: they are generally attended by priests, friars, and orphans of both sexes from the hospitals, all with lighted tapers in their hands, and singing penitential psalms. In all parts of the country the dead body is carried, unless it belonged to a person of distinction, uncovered to the burial place†. In the southern parts, particularly Calabria, old women, like the *Præficæ* of the ancients, are hired “to howl at burials. The funeral behaviour and measure of grief in the Calabrese are regulated by the strictest etiquette. The virtues as well as vices of a deceased father of a family are recapitulated by the oldest person in company. The widow repeats his words, adds comments of her own, then roars out loudly, and plucks out handfuls of her hair, which she strews over the bier. Daughters tear their locks and beat their breasts, but remain silent. More distant relations repeat the oration coolly, and commit no outrage upon their persons. When the kinsman of a baron or rich citizen dies, a number

|| Richard, tome 5. p. 189—197. Moore, vol. 2. letter 52.

* Piozzi, p. 200, 201.

† Baretti, vol. 2. p. 199.

of old women are hired to perform all these ceremonies for the family. In some parts of the country it is a rule to fast the whole day of the interment," and if any breach of this rule should happen, the reputation of the mourners would be "irretrievably ruined in the esteem of the whole parish †".

Among the various local usages with respect to the management of the dead, which prevail in Italy, one at Naples is very remarkable, where the bodies are interred in subterraneous vaults. "It is a custom here on All souls day to throw open the charnel-houses, lighted up with torches, and decked out with all the flowery pageantry of May-day: crowds follow crowds through these vaults to behold the coffins, nay the bodies of their friends and relations: the floors are divided into beds like a garden, and under these heaps of earth the corpses are laid in regular succession: the place is perfectly dry, for the soil is rather a pounded stone than earth, and parches up the flesh completely in a twelvemonth: when that period is elapsed, the body is taken up, dressed in a religious habit, and fixed like a statue in a niche: many retain a horrid resemblance to what they were when animated, and some shew strong marks of agony in their distorted features. They are much better preserved than the mummies of Toulouse, which pass for such singular curiosities §."

The Italians differ from other Europeans in the Clocks. manner of arranging the hours by the clock; for

† Swinburne, vol. 1. sect. 13.

§ Swinburne, vol. 2. sect. 9.

instead

instead of reckoning from one to twelve, they reckon, in most parts of Italy, from one to twenty-four o'clock, and make the first hour begin fifteen minutes after sunset, when they consider the day as completely finished. As the distance between sun-set and mid-night varies with the season, the hour of mid-night, and consequently of mid-day, varies also; insomuch that noon is in one time of the year at sixteen, and in another at nineteen o'clock. This manner of reckoning is much less commodious than that of the French, Britons, and others, who fix mid-day and mid-night at two invariable points of time, without regard to the perpetually varying distance between sun-set and noon ||.

Govern-
ment.

In its political state this peninsula differs from every other country of Europe, being divided into several states which have not the least mutual dependence or connexion, but are, for the greater part, connected with the foreign powers of Austria, Spain, and France. Of these some are commonwealths, and the rest monarchies. The latter, excepting one ecclesiastical state, are hereditary.

Division.

The monarchies are all absolute, and the republics, with a very small exception, aristocratic. To take a nearer view of each particularly, we are to consider the peninsula as divided into the kingdom of Naples, the dominions of the Pope, the great dukedom of Tuscany, the republic of Lucca, the dukedoms of Modena, Parma, and Mantua, the republic of Venice, the duchy of Milan, the Sardi-

|| Richard, tome 5. Preface, p. 21—25.

nian dominions, the republic of Genoa, and the diminutive states of Santo Marino, Piombino, Massa-Carrara, and Monaco, beside the Stato d'elli Presidii, and also beside the vallies of Bormio, Chiavenna, and Valteline, and the districts of Lugano, Lucarno, and Belinzona, which lying in Italy, are politically united to Switzerland.

THE

KINGDOM OF NAPLES,

CALLED also in modern times Sicily on this ^{Naples.} side of the Faro, is, from its extent and other circumstances, the greatest of the Italian states. This country, which comprehends the foot and ankle of ^{History.} the boot-formed peninsula of Italy, was, on the destruction of the Gothic power by the arms of Belisarius and Narfes, brought under the imperial sceptre of Constantinople about the year 553: but the Lombards, making an invasion 46 years after, founded the Duchy of Beneventum, which in a short time was extended over all the interior parts, leaving to the Greek emperor only a few maritime towns, which formed a kind of commonwealths under his protection. This duchy, a long time formidable, became by internal dissensions in the ninth century divided into three distinct principalities,

lities, and the Lombard power, thus diminished by division, gradually declined, and was at length totally subverted by the prowess of a few Norman adventurers.

In the beginning of the eleventh century, some Normans having passed through this country in their return from a pilgrimage at Jerusalem, gave such encouraging accounts to their countrymen, that numbers of them successively emigrated hither, and displayed great military deeds in the service of the Lombard princes and of the Greek emperor; building and fortifying about the year 1030 the city of Averfa as a place of retreat in time of emergency. Being injuriously treated by the general of the Greek forces in an expedition against the Saracens in Sicily, whither they accompanied him, the Normans repassed secretly the Faro, and attacked the principal places of the Greeks in Calabria; electing a chief, and forming a compact league among themselves. After a large extension of their conquests, their leader, Robert Guiscard, received the title of Duke of Puglia from the Pope, and acknowledged himself in return a feudal vassal of the Holy See, about the year 1059. This Robert completed the conquest of what is now called the kingdom of Naples, and Roger his third successor, who inherited the ducal throne in 1127, assumed the title of King, which title he obliged the Pope to confirm, after having made his Holiness a prisoner.

By a failure of legitimate male heirs the line of Norman princes had an end, and the Neapolitan
crown

crown was seized by Henry of Suabia, Emperor of Germany, in the year 1194, in right of Constantia his wife, a princess of the royal Norman blood. Manfred, the illegitimate grandson of this prince, having defended the Neapolitan territories against the Pope, who attempted to annex them to his own dominions, was excommunicated by his Holiness, and his kingdom was by the same authority offered to whatever foreign prince would undertake its reduction. This offer, after some ineffectual attempts of others, was accepted by Charles, Earl of Anjou, brother of Lewis the ninth, king of France, who penetrating into the country, and gaining a decisive victory at Beneventum, in which Manfred was killed, in the year 1266, obtained possession of the throne of Naples, giving a termination to the Suabian, and a beginning to the Angevine race of kings.

From want of male heirs the inheritance devolved to Queen Joan the first, who, in a declining age, declared Charles of Durazzo her successor, who in violation of consanguinity and of gratitude seized the sceptre by force, and is supposed to have put the queen to death, in the year 1382. The Durazzian line was of short duration, for it ended in Joan the second, after whose death in 1435 this kingdom was conquered by Alphonfus of Arragon, who had been adopted by Joan, and had before been in possession of the Island of Sicily.

In Alphonfus, whose natural son Ferdinand the first succeeded to the kingdom of Naples as a separate portion, commenced the Arragonese line of kings.

kings. The last of these, who governed this kingdom in person, was Frederic the second, who died a prisoner in France in 1504; his dominions having been seized by his kinsman Ferdinand the Catholic, king of Arragon, in combination with Lewis the twelfth of France. These two kings, who had combined for so cruel and unjust an end, soon quarrelled about the fruits of their robbery: the French were expelled, and Naples continued thenceforth to be governed by Viceroys as a subject province of Spain, until the year 1706 when it was conquered by the Austrians, who also held it as a province until 1734, when it was invaded by the Spaniards, who reconquered it, and fixed Don Carlos, son of the Spanish monarch on the throne of Naples. This prince, succeeding to the crown of Spain in 1759, resigned his Neapolitan dominions to his third son Ferdinand the fourth, the present king.

Govern-
ment.

Feudal establishments are said to have commenced in this country even so early as the sixth century, under the empire of Constantinople. The government has been during many centuries, and is now, a hereditary monarchy combined with feudal aristocracy. At present the power of the monarch, by means of a standing army, may be said to be absolute, notwithstanding that a parliament composed of deputies from the nobility, from the order of citizens, and from the prelates possessed of baronies, has a right to assemble every second year for the granting of subsidies; and notwithstanding that the royal edicts have not the force of laws until they
are

are registered by an assembly consisting of six wards, of which five are directed by a committee of nobles, and the remaining one by the six chief civil magistrates of the city of Naples, who are deputed from the order of citizens.

The barons, or great nobility, many of whom are styled princes, cannot, in the present situation of affairs, pretend to controul the monarch as formerly, but they exercise an almost despotic power over their unhappy vassals, who are oppressed in a manner quite shocking to humanity. Many peasants driven to desperation by taxation on one hand, and feudal oppression on another, betake themselves, for subsistence, to smuggling, or to robbery, which is so often accompanied with murder, that no less than four thousand persons are said to be annually slaughtered, mostly with guns, in the provinces distant from the capital *. Nor is the administration of justice in this country conducted in an efficacious manner for the suppression of such violence. The salaries of the judges, little more than nine pounds a month in the capital, and half as much in the provinces, are too low to raise them above corruption; and the forms of procedure are so tedious and complicated, that years elapse, after the caption of a criminal, before he is brought to trial; and thus above twelve thousand persons under criminal accusation are commonly under confinement at once in the different jails of this kingdom †. The

* Swinburne, vol. i. sect. 6.

† Idem and ibidem.

multitude of lawyers, said to be 30,000 in number, is in itself a strong argument of a defective system. The courts of justice are various, some under baronial, and others under regal jurisdiction; but the chief of all is the supreme court of appeal in the city Naples.

The King, stiled, beside other titles, King of both Sicilies and of Jerusalem, governs by the medium of several councils, the highest of which is the council of State, composed of four secretaries. He is grand master of the order of Knighthood of Saint Januarius, the members of which wear a red ribbon, and a star on the left breast, with the image of the saint in the centre. Of 23 archbishoprics, and 115 bishoprics, contained in his dominions, most, if not all, appear to be in his gift, either directly or by influence, though the Pope claims a right to dispose of the majority of them. Of the above mentioned sees, this kingdom contains 20 archiepiscopal, and 107 episcopal, the rest are in the island of Sicily. The Pope used regularly to receive from this country, as a fief of the Holy See, a certain small tribute, and other acknowledgements; but the tribute was resigned in 1529, and at present, claims of this nature, even the annual present of a white horse which used formerly to be sent, seem to be little regarded, nor was the inquisition ever suffered to be established in the Neapolitan state.

Arca.

This kingdom contains in superficial measure near 18 millions of English, or 11 millions of Irish acres, and in population above 4,700,000 persons,
distributed

distributed in above 2000 cities, towns, villages, and hamlets. The population might seem adequate to the area, if it were not known that the soil is prodigiously fertile, and that a very considerable proportion of the land, particularly in the vicinity of the Ionian sea, lies waste, and contributes little or nothing to the sustenance of man. But as the Neapolitan monarch holds under his dominion the island of Sicily, together with many small isles on both the Sicilian and Neapolitan coasts, the number of his subjects in all may amount to above six millions.

The revenue of the Neapolitan monarch, arising from all his extremely fertile dominions, is reckoned to fall short of a million of British pounds annually; and the sum total of the circulating cash in the kingdom of Naples is estimated only at about 1,600,000 pounds*. How poor are countries of the greatest natural riches rendered by oppression? The land-forces of this prince seem hardly to exceed 20,000 effective men, though above 25,000 are reckoned on paper, of whom 3,500 are said to be cavalry. The naval force is reported to consist of 25 armed ships, the largest of which are four frigates of from 50 to 30 guns†. As this fleet is by no means sufficient for the protection of the coasts against the corsairs of Barbary, square towers are placed in proper situations along the shores, each with a door about mid way between the roof

* Swinburne, vol. 1. sect. 7.

† Zimmermann.

and the ground, into which the ladder is drawn when the warder has ascended, and over this a terrace on which is placed a cannon, more for the purpose of giving an alarm to the coast than of annoying an enemy.

THE
DOMINIONS OF THE POPE,

Popedom. STRETCHING irregularly on both sides of the Appennines, quite across the peninsula, from the Adriatic to the opposite shores, consist of a large and extremely fertile, but mostly very ill cultivated, extent of territory, which by the liberality of certain monarchs of the Franks has come under the temporal as well as spiritual jurisdiction of the bishop of Rome. The first bishop of Rome is reported to have been Saint Peter the Apostle, who may perhaps have superintended the first congregation of Christian converts in this then vast and imperial city. But whoever was the first bishop, he and his successors were destitute of all revenue excepting the voluntary contributions of their flock, destitute of legal authority, and exposed to the persecutions of the Roman magistrates, until by the abolition of the Pagan System in the reign of Constantine the great, and the establishment of Christianity in its place,

place, the prelate of the Roman see obtained the amplest sanction of law, but no command or pre-eminence over other prelates.

On the translation of the seat of empire from Rome to Constantinople, and the consequent absence of the imperial court from Italy, the Roman prelate rose into greater authority, but still without any temporal power. He was elected by the clergy, senate, nobles, and people; but, when Italy became a Gothic realm, this election was invalid until it received the confirmation of the Gothic monarch, without which the bishop elect could not be admitted to consecration, or ordination. On the conquest of the country from the Goths by the arms of the Greeks, this right of confirmation was retained by the Greek emperor, and exercised by the exarch of Ravenna as his deputy, until about the year 733, when Rome became a kind of independent commonwealth, governed by its own magistrates, with the bishop at their head, not as the prince, but as the person of greatest influence on account of the sanctity of his office and character.

Pepin king of the Franks, invading Lombardy in defence of the Roman prelate, who was attacked by Aistulphus the Lombard monarch, wrested some territories from the dominion of the Lombards, and made a donation of them to the see of Rome in the year 755, when the world first saw a Christian priest arrayed with regal power, and discharging the united functions of temporal prince and bishop. Charlemagne confirmed this donation, and augmented it by the addition of other territories on his con-

quest of Lombardy in 774; but this ecclesiastical state thus constituted was still understood to be under the sovereignty of the Frankish monarchs, so that in 824, Lotharius the grandson of Charlemagne renewed the long discontinued ceremony of confirmation, commanding that no person should be consecrated bishop of Rome until after his election should be confirmed by him or his successors.

In the eleventh and twelfth centuries, when the dark ignorance and gross superstition of the times favored the most absurd and extravagant pretensions, the Roman prelate rose to the pinnacle of power. In the year 1059 a decree was framed to vest exclusively in the college of cardinals the right of electing the head of the Roman church. Afterward it was ordained that to the bishop of Rome alone should henceforward belong the title of *Papa*, or *Pope*, a title, which literally signifying father, had hitherto belonged in common to all bishops, and at this day belongs to every priest in the Greek church. The imperial dignity, which had been assumed by Charlemagne, having been removed to Germany, and it having been an established custom, since the time of that monarch, for the emperor to receive his crown in the ceremony of coronation from the hands of the Roman pontiff, the Pope now asserted a right of refusing the imperial crown, or conferring it, at pleasure; declared the emperor's confirmation of the Papal election unnecessary; and, setting himself quite above the imperial dignity, assumed the power to absolve subjects from their allegiance, to depose the reigning emperor, and

and to raise another to his place. These pretensions, which excited very terrible and lasting commotions both in Italy and Germany, prevailed or failed according to the preponderance of power on either side; the feudal barons and free cities espousing the cause, some of the Pope, others of the emperor.

The Pope however gained an astonishing ascendancy in the political state of Europe, and such as furnishes the strongest proof of the deplorable ignorance of those ages. Claiming as vicar of Christ an absolute power over all monarchs, he proceeded to excommunicate and depose any prince who offended him, and to transfer his dominions to another. Yet, while his power was so formidable abroad, it was contemptible at home: the greater part of the towns in his dominions were in the possession of powerful nobles, or leaders of popular factions, who acted independently in open defiance of his jurisdiction; and the citizens of Rome, considering themselves as members of a free commonwealth, left him scarcely the shadow of authority even within the walls of his capital. One Pope died of grief from the violence of the Roman citizens; and another, in an attempt to quell them by force, was killed in the tumult. On account of such turbulence, or at least on that pretence, one of the Popes removed the pontifical residence to Avignon in France, where it remained during seventy years of the fourteenth century, after which it was at the earnest desire of the Romans restored to its original place.

Pope Alexander the sixth, who was raised to the pontifical dignity in the year 1496, reduced, by means of French forces and of a most flagitious policy, the greater part of the ecclesiastical state to the obedience of its head. The reduction was completed by Julius the second, who succeeded in 1503, and who added considerably to the territories of the Roman see, or, as it is called, the patrimony of Saint Peter. Sixtus the fifth, who became pontiff in 1585, deprived the barons of the power which they had hitherto retained in the territories of the church, and rendered the Pope's authority absolute in his own dominions, as it is at present. But before the time of this great prelate, who was a man of extraordinary political abilities, the foreign influence of the court of Rome had received an incurable wound by the preaching of Luther in Germany, and the dissemination of the reformed doctrines. It has since been gradually diminished by the progress of literature and reason, insomuch that the power of the Pope can at present hardly be said to extend beyond the limits of his temporal dominions †.

Govern-
ment.

The Pope, who is addressed by the appellation of *Your Holiness*, is at once a spiritual and temporal monarch, uniting in his person the dignities of high-priest and king. He attains his monarchy by election, the elective power is vested exclusively in the college of cardinals, and none but a cardinal

† For the aggrandizement of the Papal power, see Bower's *Lives of the Popes*, the *Histories of Muratori*, *Gianone*, &c.

can be elected to fill the vacant Papal seat. These cardinals, who are at present the highest dignitaries next after the Pope in the Romish hierarchy, bear nearly the same relation to the supreme Roman Catholic, or pontifical Church, as canons to the archiepiscopal, or episcopal cathedrals to which they respectively belong. Their number is generally understood to be about 70 or 72, and Sixtus the fifth ordained that they should not exceed that number, for, before his time, as the creation of a cardinal was, as it still is, an act depending on the arbitrary will of the sovereign Pontiff, they were sometimes considerably more numerous†. They are distinguished by scarlet or purple robes; even their stockings and the heels of their shoes are red; and on some occasions also they wear a hat of the same color.

On the death of a Pope nine days are allowed for the assembling of the cardinals from their various places of residence, and on the tenth, those of them, who have in the mean time arrived, enter into an apartment of the Vatican palace called the *Conclave*, which name is also given to this body of electors. Here they are imprisoned until they come to a determination in the choice of a new Pope; all the outward doors and windows, which have a communication with this apartment, being closed with mason-work, except one door only, and that strictly guarded, through which food and other

† It appears from Guicciardini's History of Italy that the cardinals once amounted to 130.

necessaries are conveyed †. This confinement has sometimes, but not often, continued two or three months. Intrigue is said to be here carried to the very summit of refinement, and some foreign courts, particularly the Austrian, have great influence on the election. A majority of votes is by no means decisive in the choosing of a Pope, the concurrence of at least two thirds of the conclave being necessary by an old established law. This concurrence is mostly found by the examination of written billets, one of which each cardinal throws into a chalice; and then the election is said to be made by scrutiny: but when it is expressed by voices, which seldom happens, it is said to be made by Access; and when, which is still more rare, two thirds of the electors, without waiting for a scrutiny, salute and adore a person as Pope, it is said to be made by Adoration.

The new Pontiff assumes, immediately after his election, the pontifical robes, which consist partly of a white cassock, a sash with fringe of gold, white stockings, and slippers of red velvet. Eight days afterward he is crowned with a tiara or triple crown, and takes possession of the church of Lateran, which is the metropolitan church of the Roman Catholic communion.

“ The Pope, as a temporal prince, is universally acknowledged by all his subjects as an absolute sovereign, bound by no positive laws, but govern-

† Count Bonneval however (Memoirs p. 36.) asserts that each cardinal has a private channel, through which he admits whom he wishes.

ing entirely according to his own will and pleasure; yet the respective departments acting under him are guided by certain rules and maxims, from which they seldom deviate without an order from him as their supreme head †," who doubtless possesses uncontrollable power whenever he thinks proper to exert it. All the departments of his government are occupied by ecclesiastics; none but prelates, who in the Papal state amount to near three hundred, and are of several nations but mostly Italians, being admitted to any share of power, either political or judicial.

We are not however to suppose that all these prelates are bishops, as the terms may seem to imply. Some are merely nominal, bearing titles taken from places which have long been under the dominion of Mohammedans, such as Jerusalem, Antioch, and Ephesus. These are said to be consecrated in partibus infidelium, and are generally sent abroad as nuncios, or ambassadors, to foreign courts. Others, excepting the tonsure and prelatical habit, are mere laymen, being raised by the Pope's briefs to the rank of prelates, without any consecration or ordination. From these two kinds of prelates the supreme Pontiff generally chooses his cardinals; and in fact the magistracies, which many of them fill, conduct to that high dignity according to the long adopted style of the Roman court.

The plan of the administration of government under the Pope is too complicated, and too unin-

† Temporal government of the Pope's state, London 1788, p. 6, 45.

teresting to a British reader, to be here fully developed. "One remarkable circumstance distinguishes the ministers of this country from those of any other nation; for, though their offices imply nothing more than political or œconomical management, yet they are all magistrates and judges armed with authority to hear and determine all matters which happen within their respective jurisdictions. For this purpose every one has his tribunal, and keeps an auditor, whose business is to hear the parties contesting, to read their pleadings, and to report the whole in a summary, which he draws up for the information of his principal *." They are even judges of their own proceedings, in so much that when an appeal is made against the decision of any one of them, this appeal must be carried before the very magistrate who made the decision, and afterward, if the point be still contested, before another tribunal of which the same judge is a component member, and in which all his colleagues are in the same situation with himself, that is, ministers and judges in their respective departments. The tribunals which are held in the city of Rome, have in many instances a supreme authority over the whole state. In all of these a plurality of votes is decisive. I shall briefly notice these tribunals, without attempting to define precisely the limits of the particular jurisdiction of each.

The *Sagra Consulta*, which has a supreme jurisdiction over the whole state, excepting the city of

* Temporal government of the Pope's state, p. 47, 48.

Rome, is a court entirely judicial, and confined to the trying of causes of a criminal nature. It is a congregation composed of the cardinal secretary of state, as president, one prelate as secretary, and eight other prelates called *Ponenti*, who preside, each singly, over eight districts into which the whole state is divided. It is held twice in the week, and several cardinals by the Pope's appointment have a right to come and give their votes with the abovesaid members. The Ponente of the district in which the offence is committed takes cognizance and makes report to the congregation. The whole business is conducted in a very slow private manner, and it seems to depend intirely on the judges and their auditors whether the accused person may have any sort of a fair trial or not. This tribunal also superintends the health offices, which are instituted to prevent the communication of the plague from the Turkish coasts.

The *Segnatura di Giustizia* consists of a cardinal called the Præfect, twelve prelates who have votes, and one called the auditor, beside other prelates who have not the privilege of voting. The authority of this court extends both to civil and criminal matters, and its province is to revise the decisions of other judges, and to grant appeals from them to other courts, in cases where the laws have not otherwise made express provision.

The *Segnatura di Grazia* is a high court of appeal and of equity, composed of prelates and a cardinal-præfect, like the last named court, and having for its head or chief-justice the Pope himself, who

who alone decides; the other members being empowered only to give their opinions, not to vote. This court is so seldom held that twenty years sometimes elapse between one session and another, but the Pope's auditor is in the mean time invested with the same authority as this tribunal.

The tribunal called A. C. or Auditor of the Chamber, has in some cases a civil, and in others a criminal jurisdiction, but is not composed of exactly the same members in the latter as in the former predicament. It takes cognizance of some causes originally, and of others by way of appeal; and is in some matters limited in its authority to the city of Rome with its district, while in others it extends its influence to other parts of the state.

The *Roman Senate*, a name once so tremendous, is at present a civil court, confined in its jurisdiction to Rome and its suburbs, and mostly used only for the recovery of small debts; though all civil causes between mere laymen within the above limits might be brought before it, and even appeals from other judges. The senator of Rome, who is always a nobleman, not a native of the Papal state, nominated for life by the Pope, and resident in the capitol, is the head of this tribunal, though he seldom or never interferes in any matter agitated before it. Under him are four judges, the chief of whom is his auditor: the remaining three consist of two called collaterals, and one judge of appeals.

The *Rota* is by far the most respectable tribunal in Rome. It is composed of twelve prelates called auditors of the *Rota*, of whom three must be
Romans,

Romans, one a Bolognese, one a Ferrarese, one a Tuscan, one a Venetian, one a Milanese, one a German, one a Frenchman, and two Spaniards. The first five are all nominated by the Pope; the rest by the governments of their respective countries, excepting that the Tuscan auditor is alternately appointed by the Pope and the Grand Duke. They assemble in the Pope's palace every Monday and Friday, excepting the long vacation, and sit in the form of a semicircle. Here each judge, when he gives his vote, is obliged to state the case, and to give the reasons of his opinion. Before this tribunal may be carried "almost all disputes which relate to property, rights, and privileges, as well ecclesiastical as temporal: but most of the matters here agitated are by way of appeal, not only from the tribunals of this state, but from those of foreign countries *."

The *Apostolical Chamber* is "an aggregate of ministers, who, under various titles, are destined, either mediately or immediately, to collect, preserve, dispose of, and defend the pontifical treasury. The head or chief of this body is the Cardinal Camerlengo, or great chamberlain †," and next to him is the treasurer. With these are united twelve other prelates called clerks of the chamber, among whom is the Præfect of the Annona, who is charged with the providing of bread for the city of Rome, and the president of the Grascia, who has

* Temporal government, p. 139.

† Idem, p. 150.

the like charge with respect to meat of all kinds. Each of these fourteen members, except the president of arms, has a private tribunal of his own for civil and criminal matters incident to his office; but an appeal may be made from him to the whole chamber. The administration of this chamber is so extensive and so arbitrary, that it most materially affects the very vitals of the state.

The congregation *del Buon Governo* is a court composed of a Cardinal Præfekt, some other cardinals authorized by the Pope, twelve prelates called Ponenti, and a prelate-secretary. The province of this court is to superintend and regulate all the communities of the state, excepting those of Bologna and its territory. These communities, which are numerous in the papal dominions, resemble the corporations of British towns, having the power of making certain regulations, each within itself, one of which is the electing of a physician, and the appointing of a salary for him, which commonly amounts to twenty or forty pounds a year, and in consideration of which he is obliged to attend without fees. In these communities two thirds of the voters must agree; the resolution of a bare majority being indecisive. But their decisions are merely nominal unless they are approved by the congregation, which reigns altogether despotically over the communities, taxing them, and disposing of their income at pleasure.

The congregation of *Saint Ives*, though not a court, but rather a corporation, may be mentioned, on account of the excellent end of its institution,
which

which is to prosecute or defend the civil causes of all those, of whatever rank they may be, who cannot without a retrenchment from the necessary maintenance of their families, support a lawsuit at their own expence.

Concerning the ministers, or magistrates, employed in the administration of this government, I shall say but little. Though they are judges in many cases in the first instance, their decrees are subject to appeals, which may be carried, however inconveniently, to one or other of the tribunals above enumerated.

The *Cardinal Vicar*, who is vicar general to the Pope as bishop of Rome, has not only ecclesiastical superintendence, but also civil judicature to the distance of ten miles from the city of Rome, and, in conjunction with two assistants, takes cognizance of criminal causes which have any relation to ecclesiastical matters; but the most important of his functions is that of censor of the public manners, in which the exercise of his authority is often a real grievance.

The *Majordomo*, or Præfect of the pontifical palace, of which he is the prime director, gives judgment among all servants, artificers, and others who have any concern with the Pope's household.

The *Governor of Rome* is guardian of the police of the city, and extends his jurisdiction over the district around it, adjudging in small matters by two assistants, but in criminal cases in conjunction with a congregation, or court, of twelve persons.

With

With respect to the magistrates out of Rome it is to be observed that the three provinces of Bologna, Ferrara, and Romagna, called the three Legations, are each governed by a cardinal called a legate a latere, deputed by the Pope for three years only. The authority of these legates is very great and approaches nearest to that of the supreme Pontiff. The city of Bologna claims extraordinary privileges, and pretends even yet to govern itself as a commonwealth under the inspection of the legate, for it put itself under the Pope's protection voluntarily when it was a free city; but this seems to be hardly more than the semblance of liberty. Next in dignity to the legates is the president of the dutchy of Urbino, who has nearly the same authority, and is deputed by the Pontiff during pleasure. Throughout the rest of the Papal state a prelate stiled a governor, of less authority than the four above-mentioned magistrates, resides in every town which has the name of a city; and in places which are not reckoned cities two other kinds of governors are placed of still inferior authority, and below the prelatical rank. Those of the larger towns are stiled governors by brief, and those of the smaller are denominated commissaries. All governors are presidents, and, in fact, immediate masters, of the communities within their respective jurisdictions.

“ Every governor has subordinate to him proper officers for the execution of justice, the head or chief of whom is called the *Bargello*, and all the rest *Sbirri*. The *Bargello* is appointed by the Sagra
Consulta

Consulta by patent, renewable every six months; and the Sbirri by the respective governors, removable at their pleasure. The Sbirri are always deemed infamous, and are generally the most profligate wretches, the outcasts of society *."

The laws of this ecclesiastical monarchy consist of Laws. the ordinances enacted from time to time by the different pontiffs, and also of ancient Roman institutions where they are not contradicted by the former. In the administration of these laws the judges are bound to the observance of certain forms, but their determinations are often rather fanciful deductions than the voice of positive law, or substantial justice. A wide field is left open for partiality and oppression: law-suits are tedious, and the number of retainers to the law in Rome alone is said to be no less than twelve thousand†. No criminal can be executed until his sentence be previously confirmed by the Pope, nor until he himself confesses himself guilty; and this confession, when otherwise refused, is extorted by the rack after condemnation. By a long established custom neither priests nor women are ever punished with death, or put to the torture. The former are sent to a place of perpetual confinement called the *Ergastolo*, where they have nothing to do but to hear mass once in the day. The latter are confined to a common work-house, where they are employed in spinning and weaving.

* Temporal Government, p. 57.

† Temporal Government, p. 50.

Popula-
tion.

Agriculture is so depressed by the operation of the apostolical chamber, which has an arbitrary power over all the productions of the soil, that this state, which contains in area about eleven millions of English, or near seven millions of Irish acres, exceeded by very few parts of the world in fertility, has but about 2,200,000 inhabitants. The parts indeed which lie towards the Adriatic are tolerably populous, though the lands produce not a third of what might with proper culture be raised from them; but those which border the opposite, or, as it is called, the Tuscan sea, appear more like a desert than an inhabited country, hardly a twentieth part being in any tolerable state of culture.

Revenue.

The clear annual revenue of the Pope was some years ago estimated at 744,000 British pounds, and the debt of the state at 11,600,000, the interest of which at three per cent reduced the above revenue to somewhat below 400,000 pounds annually. From the ruinous condition of agriculture and manufactures, the circulating cash in these dominions would soon be annihilated, were it not for the sums of money continually remitted to Rome from foreign countries for spiritual concerns, which before the Protestant dissension were enormous, and even a few years ago, before the defection of France, amounted to above 560,000 pounds, but are now reduced considerably below 500,000. By the late French revolution the Pope also lost Avignon and its territory, which belonged to him in France; but he still retains Beneventum in the kingdom of Naples, of which he is temporal sovereign since the year 1054.

The

The standing army of the Roman Pontiff is said ^{Forces.} to consist of but about 3600 men, of whom about a third part are stationed in the capital. The militia, however, amount to a considerable number, and made formerly a considerable figure in the wars of his Holiness, but are at present almost quite ignorant of military discipline. The naval armament of this state is quite contemptible, consisting of a few galleys which venture to sea only in summer. Three of them commonly are armed at once, which, though they have each near 400 men, are inferior in fight to small corsairs of Barbary, notwithstanding that almost their only business is to protect the coasts against these pirates.

THE

GREAT DUTCHY OF TUSCANY,

SHELVING from the summits of the Appen- ^{Tuscany.} nine ridge to the shores of the Mediterranean, is much inferior in the antiquity of its title, and the extent of its territory, to the two Italian states already described. The city of Florence, said to have been founded by the soldiers of Sylla 107 years be- ^{History.} fore the birth of Christ, and ruined by the Goths in the sixth century, was, after the conquest of Lombardy, rebuilt by Charlemagne, and became,

like several other Italian cities, in course of time, the head of a considerable commonwealth, rich and respectable by commerce. The conquest of the republic of Pisa, which fell under its dominion in 1406, enlarged the extent of its territory abroad ; but it was often distracted by civil dissensions at home.

Amid the factions of the citizens, Cosmo di Medici a merchant, surnamed the Great, who was born in 1399, rose to such popularity by his wealth, his talents, and his virtues, that he acquired the supreme direction of the state, and, although every appearance of a free commonwealth was preserved, he presided at the helm with almost absolute sway. His authority was retained in a great measure by his posterity, and, in the year 1530, Florence, which had expelled the Medici family, being conquered by the arms of Charles the Fifth, emperor of Germany and king of Spain, the republican Government was dissolved, and the Florentine state converted into an absolute and hereditary monarchy under Alexander Medici, in which condition it continues to this day. In 1557 Cosmo, the successor of Alexander, augmented his dominion by the acquisition of the Siennese territories, which he procured by pecuniary, and other considerations from Philip the Second of Spain ; the commonwealth of Sienna having two years before been reduced under the power of Charles the Fifth. This Cosmo was the first who bore the title of Great Duke, which title was conferred on him by the Pope in 1569.

In

In 1737 the house of Medici becoming extinct, a house which had rendered itself most illustrious by its noble patronage of literature and of the fine arts, Tuscany, by the agreement of the Austrian, Spanish, and French courts, came into the possession of Francis of Lorraine, husband of the heiress of Austria, as a collateral heir of the Medici family. The Tuscan state was then governed by a deputy, as a subject province of the Austrian dominion, until it fortunately found a resident sovereign in Leopold, second son of Francis, who, on his late accession to the Imperial throne of Germany under the title of Leopold the Second, conferred this great duchy on one of his sons.

Some faint representations of the old republican institutions are even yet permitted to subsist at Florence, such as a senate and a council of two hundred; but their privileges are merely nominal, the Great Duke being altogether an arbitrary sovereign: The Tuscans, however, since the loss of their liberties, have had the extraordinary fortune of being mostly governed by princes of a generous and a benign spirit. Such were the majority of the Medici, and such was the late Leopold, who made many regulations for the comfort of his subjects; simplifying the laws, abolishing erroneous institutions, and leaving every man absolute master of the fruits of his own industry †: so that, so long as the system of Leopold shall remain unfringed

† His system of rules are contained in a book published at Florence in 1791, called *Governo della Toscana*, &c.

by his successors, we may regard the Tuscans as a people exceeded by very few in political happiness. Yet one of his regulations, whereby all capital punishments are abolished, may not be found justified by experience on a longer trial.

Popula-
tion.

Revenue.

Traversed by the branches of the Appennine chain, Tuscany is of so uneven and rocky a surface, particularly when compared to the luxuriantly fertile territories of the ecclesiastical state, as to have occasioned a proverb among the Italians, that the Pope has the flesh, and the Great Duke the bones of Italy. But notwithstanding this great natural disparity, the inhabitants of Tuscany appear to be no fewer in number than 1,500,000, on an area of little more than three millions of Irish, or five millions of English acres, and the peasants are far superior to those of the Papal territories in industry, wealth, and the decency of their personal aspect. The revenue of the Great Duke seems to fall little short of 800,000 pounds annually without any considerable debt §; and though about 3000 men only are kept as a standing army in time of peace, yet doubtless a considerable force might be easily raised in case of emergency. His maritime force, though much superior to that of the Pope, is yet very small, consisting only of three or four frigates and a few galleys.

§ The Abbé Richard, (tome 3. p. 229.) said that it amounted in his time to 17,000,000 of livres, or 743,750 pounds.

THE STATE OF LUCCA,

Of a very small, but extremely well cultivated, ^{Lucca.} rich, and populous territory, has for its capital the city of Lucca, whose origin is so ancient as to elude the research of historians. After the downfall of the Roman empire, it underwent a variety of revolutions, and, among other turns of fortune, was a long time in subjection to Florence; but it has maintained its freedom since the year 1460, and subsists as an independent commonwealth, though under the Imperial protection as a fief of the German empire.

In its government Lucca is an aristocracy, the sovereign power residing in 240 nobles, who are divided into two bodies which act alternately, each six months in its turn. The supreme magistrate of the republic, styled *Gonfalonier*, can hold his office only two months, and cannot be raised to the same dignity again until after an interval of six years. The immediate government, or executive administration, is committed to this chief and to nine *Anziani* or Aldermen, who also are changed every two months. The members of this magistracy obtain their places by lot; a council of thirty-six nominating 150 nobles, whose names are put in a box, and appointing nine persons who draw ten names at hazard for the *Gonfalonier* and Aldermen. The judicial department is in the hands of five persons, who must be foreigners; one, called a *Podesta*, for criminal matters, and four, called Auditors, for civil.

Such

Such is the effect of genuine liberty, that the territory of this little state, consisting partly of low, and partly of high rugged land, and containing only about 256,000 English, or 158,000 Irish acres, is inhabited by hardly less than 140,000 people, among whom are no idlers, mendicants, or vagabonds, such not being permitted by the laws or police. The only sea port of this republic is Viaregio. Near 30,000 persons inhabit the capital, which is a well fortified city, on the river Cerchio, about thirteen miles distant from the sea. As Lucca has had no war for above two centuries, its taxes are very light, amounting to little more than 26,000 pounds annually. The militia of the state is reported to consist of 20,000 men, of whom 6000 are said to be in constant readiness to run to arms on the flaming of a beacon which is placed on a certain tower in the city; but the garrison on actual duty seems not to exceed six hundred in number.

THE MODENESE,

Modena. Or state of Modena, was, after a variety of revolutions, erected into a Dutchy by the Emperor Frederick the Third in the year 1452, in favor of the illustrious family of Este, who had been first in possession of it in the thirteenth century, and who retain possession of it to this day as a fief of the German empire. The Duke, though he is considered as a feudal subject of the German emperor, is an independent hereditary monarch, governing absolutely,

lutely, and administering through the medium of several governors, and Podesfas or judges. The number of his subjects is above 400,000, and the territories under his dominions contain about 1,200,000 English, or 740,000 Irish acres. His revenue may probably exceed 100,000 pounds. He is said to keep only about 800 soldiers in time of peace, and what number he may be able to raise and support in time of war is uncertain.

T H E P A R M E S A N,

Or state of Parma, comprehending, in its present political extent, the dutchies of Placentia and Guastalla, was after many vicissitudes of subjection to various masters, conferred by Pope Paul the Third on his natural son Peter-Lewis Farnese in the year 1545; and thus it became alienated from the Roman see, to which it had for some time belonged. The male line of Farnese becoming extinct in 1727, the royal family of Spain, by a claim of female inheritance, gained possession of this dutchy, and to a prince of this family it now belongs. The duke is an absolute and hereditary monarch. His territories contain in area somewhat above a million of English, or 620,000 Irish acres, and in the number of his subjects, in his revenues and forces, is nearly equal to the Duke of Modena.

T H E

THE MANTUAN,

Mantua.

Or state of Mantua, had often changed its political situation before the year 1328, when it fell under the dominion of the house of Gonzaga, who retained the government of it till 1701, when Ferdinand Gonzaga, the last Duke, having espoused the cause of France against the Emperor, was expelled by the Austrians who still remain masters of it. It is governed by an Austrian envoy, and though it was formerly a considerable state, it seems at present not to have much above 200,000 inhabitants. Its area, diminished by the separation from it of Guastalla in 1748, contains but about 550,000 English or 340,000 Irish acres.

THE STATE OF VENICE,

Venice.

Much celebrated for the singular situation of its capital, its unparalleled length of duration as a commonwealth, the extensive power which it formerly possessed, and the extreme jealousy and vigilance of its administration, owes its origin to the ravages of the barbarians who demolished the Roman empire, and its subsequent aggrandizement to commercial industry.

History.

About the middle of the fifth century, when the arms of the Huns under the conduct of Attila stained the fertile fields of Italy with blood, a considerable number of the terrified Italians took refuge from the fury of these merciless invaders in the cluster

cluster of marshy islets now occupied by the Venetian capital. Though on the death of Attila many of the fugitives returned to the continent, yet many also remained in their watery asylum, constructing a city, which, because most of its inhabitants were of the people called Veneti from the neighbouring coast, obtained the name of Venetia or Venice. The irruption of the Lombards into Italy in the succeeding century added many refugees to the former Venetians, who soon began to acquire some degree of force on their native element the sea.

As a small settlement of fishermen had early been formed on one of the Venetian islands called Rialto under the protection of Padua, that city claimed a sovereignty over the Venetian commonwealth, and attempted to put some restrictions on its trade, but the Venetians maintained their independence, and, growing rich by traffic, began toward the year 1000 to acquire the dominion of some maritime tracts. This extension of empire was occasionally improved, and at length in 1406 Padua itself, which was regarded as the parent state, was brought into subjection.

In the fifteenth century Venice arrived at the zenith of her power, but began in the next to decline by causes which could not easily be foreseen nor avoided by human wisdom. The Indian trade, which had been the source of great wealth, was lost to her by the discovery of a passage to southern Asia round Africa by the Portuguese. A combination of the most powerful monarchies of Europe threatened

threatened her with destruction. In this and the following century the Turks deprived her of Cyprus, Candia, and other possessions, so that her dominion became at length reduced within its present limits.

The Venetian commonwealth was at first a democracy administered by seventy-two magistrates called Tribunes, who were annually elected by the general assembly of the people. The inconvenience of this system determined the citizens to adopt a new form in the year 697, when they put themselves under the government of a single magistrate styled Duke, or Doge, whose office continued for life, and that with absolute authority, his power not being checked by any effective legal institution. From this new arrangement arose many attempts of the Doges to convert the government into a hereditary despotism, and many popular tumults in opposition to their designs, which often ended with the death or banishment of the chief magistrate. But in 1173 the government was new modelled; the power of the Doge was greatly limited, and a grand council of four hundred persons instituted, in which was vested all the authority formerly possessed by the assembly of the whole people. The members of this council were nominated annually by twelve persons elected for that purpose, two from each of the six parts called Sestiers into which the city was divided. The institution of the grand council was the foundation of an aristocracy, which was completely formed in 1297, it being then ordained that those who were members of the grand council

council should hold their places for life, and that the same right should descend to their posterity without any election: From that time, when a body of hereditary legislative nobility was established, Venice has remained a purely aristocratical, or oligarchical commonwealth; and though several new institutions have since been made, the government in substance has continued nearly the same.

The legislative jurisdiction and the sovereignty of the Venetian state is vested wholly in what is called the grand council, and sometimes also, but with less accuracy, the senate, which consists of about fifteen hundred members belonging to about five hundred and thirty patrician families, who are possessed of every species of power in the state, legislative, judicial, and executive, to the total exclusion of all others. To the registering of the names of these families is appropriated a roll called the Golden Book, which is the criterion of their title; and they are distinguished into three classes according to the degrees of their antiquity. This sovereign assembly comprehends within it all other councils and departments in the government, these being, as it were, only committees of the grand council, which, when it is held, suspends the functions of all tribunals and magistrates. None can be a member of this great legislative body until after the age of twenty-five, nor till after a formal admission. Every year in December the council decrees what number of new members are to be admitted, and the fortune of the candidates is decided by lot, in order that no disgrace may attend the
the

the unsuccessful attempt of those who must await another opportunity of admission. Votes in this assembly are given by ballot, and in proposals of laws and regulations a majority of suffrages decides the question.

The College, or Seignior, is the supreme cabinet council of the commonwealth, the representative of the state with respect to foreign nations, the court which gives audience and answers to foreign ambassadors, to the deputies of towns and provinces, and to the generals of the army. It also receives all requests and memorials on affairs of state, summons the senate at pleasure, and arranges the business to be discussed in that assembly. It originally consisted of the Doge and six counsellors only; but at present is composed of twenty-six persons; the original body being augmented by the addition of six members of the grand council, called *Savii* or Sages, nominated by the senate; five *Savii* of the Terra Firma, or superintendents of the Venetian dominions on the continent; five *Savii* of the orders, as they are called; and three members of the criminal court of forty. The *Savii* of the orders have no suffrage, and can only give their opinion when it is demanded. The Doge and the rest of the seignior are addressed by the title of most Serene Prince, most illustrious and most excellent Lords.

The senate, or *Pregadi* *, is a council in which all political matters are debated, the making of

* The members were called *Pregadi*, or *Prayed*, because they were originally a voluntary assembly requested by the Doge to meet and consult with him.

peace or war, the imposition of taxes, the choice of ambassadors, and the election of the principal magistrates, the appointment of whom is determined by ballot. The six first sages of the Seignior form a principal committee of the Senate: they are changed every six months, and preside alternately, each a week in his turn, acting in that time nearly as secretary of state. The Pregadi, beside some persons authorized by their offices to sit in this council, is composed of sixty magistrates, and of a *Giunta*, or supplemental body, consisting of the same number, who have the same privileges as the former, and assist them in case of pressing and multiplied matters of debate. To the senate also belongs another Giunta called *Sotto-pregadi*, consisting of sixty persons, who are not empowered to vote, but only to assist, and to prepare themselves for the office of senators, these being changed every year, and new members elected by the grand council.

The chief magistrate of the Venetian commonwealth is the Doge, who is stiled Prince of the State, and bears the highest dignity of all, but is individually possessed of no kind of power. He is president of the councils of state, and has two votes in the senate; but out of these, and out of the ducal palace, he is undistinguished from other members of the republic. He cannot even go out of the city without the leave of the six counsellors of the Seignior, and after his death six magistrates called Correctors are chosen for the occasion, who examine the conduct of the deceased, and make their report to the senate, that alterations may be made

made in future to prevent abuses if any have been found. It is truly said of this magistrate that in the purple robe he is a King, in the senate a senator, a slave in the city, and out of the city a private person. He is a purely elective magistrate, is admitted to his dignity by the imposition of a diadem, and holds his place for life. The mode of election, though tedious in the relation, may, on account of its peculiarity, be described, contrary to my usual brevity.

“ All the members of the grand council, who are past thirty years of age, being assembled in the hall of the palace, as many balls are put in an urn as there are members present: thirty of these balls are gilt and the rest white. Each counsellor draws one; and those who get the gilt balls go into another room, where is an urn containing 30 balls, nine of which are gilt. The thirty members draw again, and those who, by a second piece of good fortune, get the gilt balls, are the first electors, and have a right to choose forty, among whom they comprehend themselves. These forty, by balloting in the same manner as in the former instances, are reduced to twelve second electors, who choose twenty-five; the first of the twelve naming three, and the remaining eleven two a-piece. All these being assembled in a chamber apart, each of them draws a ball from an urn containing twenty-five balls, among which are nine gilt. This reduces them to nine third electors, each of whom chooses five, making in all forty-five, who, as in the preceding instances, are reduced by ballot to eleven fourth electors, and they

they have the nomination of forty-one, who are the direct electors of the Doge. Being shut up by themselves, they begin by choosing three chiefs and two secretaries: each elector being then called throws a little billet into an urn, which stands on a table before the chiefs. On this billet is the person's name whom the elector chooses to be Doge.

The secretaries then, in presence of the chiefs and of the whole assembly, open the billets. Among all the forty-one there are generally but a very few different names, as the election for the most part balances between three or four candidates. Their names, whatever is their number, are put into another urn, and drawn out one after another. As soon as a name is extracted, the secretary reads it, and, if the person to whom it belongs, is present, he immediately retires. One of the chiefs then demands with a loud voice, whether any crime can be laid to this person's charge, or any objection made to his being raised to the sovereign dignity. If any objection is made, the accused is called in, and heard in his defence; after which the electors proceed to give their decision by throwing a ball into one of two boxes, one of which is for the ayes, the other for the noes. The secretaries then count the balls, and, if there are twenty-five in the first, the election is finished; if not, another name is read, and the same inquisition is made as before, until there are twenty-five approving balls.

This form, wherein judgment and chance are so perfectly blended, precludes every attempt to

corrupt the electors, and all cabals for the ducal dignity; for who could dream by any labor or contrivance, of gaining an election, the mode of whose procedure equally baffles the address of a politician and a juggler †." It is not to be omitted that the forty-one direct electors are imprisoned, as the cardinals in the conclave, until they come to a determination.

Next in dignity to the Doge, but without any power in the government, are the Procurators of Saint Mark, whose number has been various, but has of late years been eleven. They are divided into three classes; the Procurators *di supra*, out of whom the Doge is elected, and who have the care of the library and buildings of Saint Mark, and of the archives of the republic; the Procurators *di ultra*, who have the care of pious bequests, widows and orphans in one of the parts of the city; and the Procurators *di citra*, who have the same office in another part.

The supreme judicial court with respect to state crimes, and a most tremendous tribunal, is the council of ten, which consists in fact of seventeen members; for, beside the ten noblemen chosen annually by the grand council, from whose number this court receives its name, the Doge presides, and the six counsellors of the Seigniorie assist, when they think proper, at all deliberations. Three chiefs of this court, chosen monthly by lot, receive informations, and prosecute such persons as appear to

† Moore, vol. 3. letter 11.

them fit objects; and the court determines the fate of the accused by a majority of voices.

A committee of the above council, called the Court of State Inquisition, is the most despotic tribunal, perhaps, in the world. It consists of three members annually chosen, one out of the six counsellors of the Seignior, and two out of the ten who give name to the council so called. These inquisitors employ a number of spies, and are empowered to enter, at all hours of the day or night, the houses of all people, without the least exception in favor of even the Doge, to seize their persons, and examine their conduct. If the three be unanimous, they can cause the prisoner to be executed immediately, either in public or private, as they think proper, without specifying his crime, and without being ever accountable for their conduct. But if one of the three dissents, the cause must be carried before the full council of ten.

Among the various other tribunals of the Venetian state may be noticed the three courts of forty, and the avogadors. Of the three former the first is a court of criminal jurisdiction; the second, called the old civil court of forty, receives appeals from all inferior magistrates in civil causes tried within the city; and the third, or new civil court of forty, has the same jurisdiction over inferior courts without the city. The magistrates of these three courts pass from one to another, and continue eight months members of each in turn. The Avogadors, three in number, and continuing in office sixteen months, have, beside other privileges, the office of inspect-

ing the execution of the laws, of bringing a process against such magistrates as neglect their duty, and of determining before what court each cause is to be carried, so as not to leave it in the power of either party to bring a cause to a high court, which is competent to be tried by one less expensive.

The secretaries, or clerks, of the grand council, and of other tribunals of the state, are chosen from the class of citizens, who constitute a kind of intermediate order between the Patricians and plebeians. The provinces in the main-land of Italy, and other places under the Venetian government, are administered by governors called *Podestats*, appointed for sixteen months by the grand council. The nobles of these countries are totally excluded from having any concern in the government, as are also all ecclesiastics of every denomination. A court of spiritual inquisition is permitted to subsist, but so totally under the controul of the senate, that its jurisdiction is hardly more than nominal. This commonwealth was always firm against the admission of the exorbitant pretensions of the Roman see. At the head of its church is a Patriarch nominated by the senate: the curates of the parishes are elected by the parishioners, and ecclesiastics of every description completely subject to the civil power.

Jealousy is conspicuous in the genius of the Venetian government. The tribunals are so framed that they act as reciprocal checks one on another. No Patrician dares to have any kind of private conversation or correspondence with any foreigner, nor

to

to be seen near the person of a foreign ambassador even in a public place of worship. In no state are the laws more respected and obeyed, as in none are they more scrupulously, rigorously, and inflexibly administered. On the whole, the following observation of the historian seems very just. "If we view the Venetian government as calculated for the order of nobles alone, its institutions are so excellent, the deliberative, legislative, and executive powers, are so admirably distributed and adjusted, that it must be regarded as a perfect model of political wisdom: but if we consider it as formed for a numerous body of people subject to its jurisdiction, it will appear a rigid and partial aristocracy, which lodges all power in the hands of a few members of the community, while it degrades and oppresses the rest *."

The Italian territories of this commonwealth, Population. on an area of about 6,400,000 English, or near 4,000,000 of Irish acres, may contain near 3,000,000 of people. The subjects of the state, taken altogether, probably exceed 3,000,000, as Venice possesses several extra-Italian territories, which are thought to exceed in surface half the intra-Italian, consisting of part of Istria, part of Dalmatia with several islands on its coast, and some islands on the coast of Greece in the Ionian sea. The clear an- Revenue and force.

* Robertson's Introduction to Charles the Fifth. For the Venetian government, see Monsieur Amelot de la Houffaye sur Venise. Also Richard, tome 2. p. 165—244. Also Moore, vol. 1. Letters the 7th, 8th, 9th, 10th, 13th, 14th, 15th, 16th, and 17th.

nual revenue of the state is rated at a million of British pounds; the land forces in time of peace amount to near seven thousand men, beside a militia; and the naval armament to thirty vessels of various force, consisting of ships of the line, frigates, and gallies. With this force the Venetian state considers itself as having the dominion of the Adriatic sea, and, in token of this dominion, the Doge, every year about Ascension day, throws a ring with great ceremony into the waves, affecting thereby to marry the gulf, or to make it the wife of the Venetian state, according to an institution made in the twelfth century by Pope Alexander the Third, who was protected by the Venetians against the power of the Emperor Frederic Barbarossa. In its navy consists the real force of this commonwealth: It is trusted to the command of a noble Venetian, and commonly manned with natives; but such jealousy is entertained of the army, that natives are not employed in that department; it consists of foreign troops, and is never committed to the command of any other than a foreigner, whose conduct is inspected in time of war by two nobles named by the senate, called *Proveditori*, without whose concurrence he cannot undertake any enterprise of moment.

T H E M I L A N E S E,

Milan.

Or state of Milan, extending through the vast plain of Lombardy, and comprehending a tract of most luxuriant fertility, was constituted a dutchy in the
year

year 1395 in favor of John Galeazzo Visconti, whose family, in the distractions of Italy, had uniformly adhered to the Ghibelline, or Imperial faction. The male line of this family failing in 1447, Milan was seized by Francis Sforza, an adventurer, whose posterity kept possession of it until the beginning of the sixteenth century, when Francis the First the French monarch, and the Emperor Charles the Fifth, contended for it with great violence; the one claiming it as a state devolving to him by right of female inheritance, the other as a reverted fief of the empire. In 1525 fortune decided in favor of the Imperialists, and the Emperor afterward conferred it on his son Philip the Second, King of Spain. It continued under the dominion of the Spanish monarch until the beginning of the present century, when it was conquered by the Austrians, who have held it since the year 1706, excepting that, by a treaty made in 1736, a part of the Milanese territory was ceded to the house of Savoy, and now makes a part of the Sardinian dominions. An Austrian resident immediately administers the government of this dutchy, which contains in its present extent about 2,000,000 of English, or 1,200,000 Irish acres, and considerably more than a million of inhabitants. The revenue is said to exceed 300,000 pounds annually, and to be mostly expended within the dutchy, as a large military establishment is there constantly maintained.

THE
DOMINIONS
OF THE
KING OF SARDINIA,

Sardinian
domini-
ons.

Consisting almost wholly of the duchy of Savoy, and the principality of Piedmont, in the latter of which the late acquisitions of this monarchy are included, extend from the lake of Geneva to the Mediterranean; but Savoy, which, in its mountainous aspect and romantic beauties, is quite like Switzerland, to which however it is much inferior in the improvement of the soil, is in a strict geographical sense no part of Italy, notwithstanding that it is always considered as a part of that peninsula, for it shelves toward France from the summits of the Alps, which form the natural boundary of Italy, and which separate Savoy from Piedmont, and all other Italian territories*.

History.

The princes, from whom the royal family of Sardinia is descended, were Counts of Savoy in the eleventh century. In the thirteenth they conquered the greater part of Piedmont, and were raised to the dignity of Dukes of Savoy in the year 1416

* When this book was in the press, Savoy was wrested from the Sardinian monarch and politically incorporated with France, at least for the present. The same fate has attended the county of Nice.

by

by the Emperor Sigismund. The princes of this house have been generally men of abilities, and though bordered by potent neighbours, and often despoiled of part of their dominions, they have gradually augmented their territory by occasional acquisitions, particularly in the present century. One of these acquisitions is the island of Sardinia, which, by a treaty of peace between the Spanish, Austrian, and other courts, was ceded to the Duke of Savoy with the title of King in the year 1720.

The monarch of these dominions bears, beside that of King of Sardinia, several other titles, among which is the vain appellation of King of Cyprus. His eldest son, who before the acquisition of the regal title, was stiled Prince of Piedmont, is now called Duke of Savoy. The succession is hereditary, but, by an old established rule not as yet violated, females are excluded from the inheritance of the royal sceptre. The monarchy is quite absolute, but several old laws and modes of administration, which obtained in the several provinces, before they composed any part of the present kingdom, are still suffered to subsist. Ecclesiastics are completely subject to the civil power, and the fees of the prelates are in the donation of the monarch. Justice is administered by many courts, of which the highest is the supreme royal council at Turin. A council of state is here as elsewhere supreme in political matters. The only order of knighthood is that of the Annunciada, or Annunciation, of which the King is grand master.

The

Area and
popula-
tion.

The principality of Piedmont, including, except Savoy, all the Sardinian dominions on the continent, one of which is the small principality of Oneglia environed by the Genoese territories, contains above 8,000,000 of English acres. By the addition of Savoy, whose area is near two millions and a half, the continental territories of the Sardinian monarch, taken altogether, contain above ten millions and a half of English acres, or above six millions of Irish, and probably somewhat more than three millions of inhabitants, of whom near three millions inhabit Piedmont, Savoy being but thinly peopled. Perhaps the number of souls in the latter may be about 350,000. The island of Sardinia, which really adds very little to the strength of this monarchy, makes an addition of near half a million to the population.

Revenue
and force.

The revenue of the king is computed at near a million of British pounds annually, without any debt, or, at least, without any other than such as is very inconsiderable. The navy of this state is of little consequence, consisting of about thirty small armed vessels; but its army, one of the best appointed in Europe, is composed of about 22,000 men in time of peace, and has amounted commonly to 30,000 in time of war. By their situation the Sardinian dominions are the barrier of the Italian peninsula toward France, and their king has been denominated the Janus, or watchman of Italy. On this account they are strongly fortified, and some of the places of strength are considered as masterpieces of fortification. It has long been the uniform

form policy of the Sardinian court to engage in war only as an auxiliary to Austria or France, according as its safety or interest required, and to bargain for considerable subsidies for the pay of its troops.

THE STATE OF GENOA,

Occupying a long, incurvated, and very narrow Genoa.
tract of coast, which constituted a great part of the ancient Liguria, concentrates its whole strength and opulence in the capital, from which it has its name. The origin of this city is lost in the darkness of antiquity. We find that about two hundred and History.
three years before the birth of Christ it was taken and destroyed by Mago a Carthaginian commander. Rebuilt by the Romans, it was long after sacked by the Saracens, again more completely desolated by the Lombards, and finally rebuilt by Charlemagne. Pepin, son of this conqueror, conferred it on a nobleman of France with the title of Count, whose descendents reigned over it until it became an independent commonwealth at the end of the eleventh century. Genoa, from that period, experienced, amid intestine factions, a long series of revolutions; rising to such a pitch of wealth and power by its commerce, as to command the whole extent of the Mediterranean with its fleets; declining afterward from its meridian splendor, and becoming successively dependent on the neighbouring potentates. In the year 1528, when it was under the dominion of the French monarchy, it regained
its

its independence by the conduct of the famous Andrew Doria, who obtained the noble title of Father of his country, and established that form of government, which without any material alteration subsists at this day.

Govern-
ment.

The commonwealth is an aristocracy, the power of which is monopolized by between four and five hundred Patrician families, divided into the old and new porticos, the former of which consists of twenty-eight, the latter of above four hundred. That which acts as representative of the republic in its transactions with foreign states, is the Seignior, composed of the Doge and twelve senators, elected every two years. The administration of the revenues of the state is committed to the college, which consists of eight magistrates called Procurators, elected every two years, beside an indefinite number of others who are procurators for life, and who have attained the distinction by having borne the dignity of Doge. For the discussion of weighty matters the seignior and college unite into one body. That which is called the council, or assembly, composed of the united bodies of the seignior, and of the college, together with a hundred other senators drawn from the grand council, is the supreme tribunal for civil causes, and also takes cognizance of some criminal causes which seem to concern the state; but other matters of a criminal nature are carried before the Seignior and college singly.

The sovereign authority rests in the grand council or senate. This consists of the Seignior and
four

four hundred nobles above the age of twenty-five, elected every year out of both porticos indifferently. This body confers the chief posts in the government, gives decision in matters which belong to peace or war, and determines all affairs of great moment. No new tax can be imposed without the concurrence of four-fifths of this body, but in other points a majority of suffrages gives the determination. An office of state-inquisition also is established at Genoa, less despotic indeed than that of Venice, but whose judgment however in crimes of state is final and severe.

The head of the state is the Doge elected every two years, alternately out of the old and new portico, by the votes of the grand council. None is eligible to this supreme magistracy but a man past fifty years of age, of a noble and legitimate birth, and of wealth sufficient for the support of his high dignity. No person can be raised to this post a second time until after an interval of ten years; and the conduct of each Doge is scrutinized after the expiration of his office. He presides in all the councils, and has the right of proposing the subjects of debate; but has no farther power as an individual, and cannot even receive a visit of ceremony in the ducal palace without the presence of two members of the Seigniorie, called governors, who constantly reside with him.

The territory of this commonwealth bends round the great bay, which is improperly called the gulf of Genoa, in a length of above 130, but in a breadth of not more than 10 miles, in general, between the
Area and population.
Appennine

Appennine and the sea. Traversed by the roots of the great ridge, it is extremely rugged and rocky, almost destitute of trees *, unfertile in corn, and not prolific in wine, but so wonderfully improved by an industrious race who cultivate the olive, that though its area can hardly exceed 1,000,000 English, or amount to much more than 600,000 Irish acres, it yet maintains near half a million of people, a considerable proportion of whom are in circumstances comparatively easy.

Revenue
and force.

The revenue of the state is said, by a late writer †, to amount only to 120,000 pounds yearly, and probably it may not much exceed that sum. But whatever the public revenue may be, vast wealth is possessed by individuals, mostly in cash deposited in the various banks of Europe, and partly also in land, some nobles having estates in other countries, particularly the kingdom of Naples. The annual rent of these estates is said to be equal to the whole public revenue. On occasions of pressing danger private wealth has been expended in the service of the state, as in the year 1747, when, to oppose the Austrians, who threatened Genoa with total subjection, 30,000 men were arrayed by this common-

* An Italian proverb says, that the Genoese have hills without wood, a sea without fish, women without shame, and men without faith. The two former assertions are partly founded in truth, but the two latter are general conclusions falsely drawn from some mistaken facts.

† The Abbé du Patty. See for an account of this republic Richard, tome 1. p. 107—184. Dictionnaire de l'Italie, tome 1. p. 503—517.

wealth, mostly at the expence of private contributors. That number of militia is said to be still kept on foot, but the regular troops are reported not to exceed 2000 men, and the naval armament consists of only four gallies. The safety, however, of this republic depends chiefly on the great strength of its capital, the excessive ruggedness of the country, and, above all, on the reciprocal jealousy of its neighbours.

S A N M A R I N O,

Called by the Italians *la Republichella*, or the di-San Ma-
minutive commonwealth, occupies for its whole ^{rino.}
extent of territory a single mountain with its roots,
of steep ascent, covered with snow three months in
the year, about five or six English miles in the dia-
meter of the base, environed by the Pope's domi-
nions, and containing the town of San Marino,
which is on the summit, three castles, and five or
six thousand inhabitants, of whom all, who are able
to bear arms, are disciplined as soldiers, and are
in constant readiness for defence. One path only
conducts from the subjacent country to the town,
and it is forbidden by severe penalties to attempt to
make any other.

A mason, named Marino, a Dalmatian by birth,
is said to have retired as a hermit to the mountain,
which now bears his name, toward the middle of
the sixth century, and to have obtained by the fame
of his sanctity the property of it for ever from a
princess to whom it belonged. Many others mak-
ing

ing the mountain a place of religious retreat, Marino formed them into a society and founded a republic, which was to govern itself by the laws of the gospel, and which has now subsisted above twelve centuries in poverty, simplicity, and in peace, excepting that it engaged in one war as an auxiliary to Pope Pius the second in the fifteenth century. In the year 1740, in consequence of some discontents, a part of the citizens solicited the Pope to take their commonwealth under his immediate dominion; but the Pontiff, acting with a moderation conformable to the sanctity of his character, took the sense of all the citizens, and, finding the majority inclined to independence, renounced all claim of immediate sovereignty, and left them in the full enjoyment of their liberties. It is said, however, that since that time his Holiness has meditated the dissolution of this commonwealth, because it was found that robbers made it a place of refuge †.

The government is democratical with a mixture of aristocracy. The sovereign power resides in the general assembly, called the *Arengo*, which indeed is seldom convened, consisting of all the heads of families in the state. The administration is managed by what is called the council of sixty, though it is composed of only forty members, half Patricians and half Plebeians, all above the age of twenty-five, and all of different families. The concurrence of two-thirds of their number is necessary to make a determination. The chief magistrates

† Piozzi, p. 434.

are two captains, elected by this council, changed every two months, and not re-eligible until after an interval of at least a year. The judge of civil and criminal causes is a stranger elected every three years, as is also the physician of the commonwealth. One of the most distinguished personages is the schoolmaster, appointed also by the council of sixty, with a salary paid by the republic.

P I O M B I N O,

A small principality, with a fortified town of the same appellation situate opposite to the isle of Elba, Piombino. belonged formerly to the republic of Pisa, and, on the fall of that state, was seized by private usurpers. On the extinction of the Appiani family, who last reigned over it, the Emperor Ferdinand the Second took possession of it as a fief of the empire, and sold it in 1634 to a nephew of Pope Gregory the Fifteenth. A grand daughter of this nephew brought it as a dowry into the family of Buoncompagno, Duke of Sora in the kingdom of Naples, and it is now possessed by that ducal house under the protection of the Neapolitan monarch.

M A S S A C A R R A R A,

A little dutchy or principality, between Lucca and Massa. Modena, formerly belonged to the house of Cibo, but came by marriage and female inheritance into the possession of the Duke of Modena, to whom it still is subject.

M O N A C O,

Monaco. Governed by its own hereditary prince, is a kind of kingdom in miniature, under the protection of France. The whole dominion of this monarch extends in length but six miles, and little more than half a mile in breadth, between the Tuscan sea and a mountain which separates it from the territory of Nice on the north in the Sardinian dominions. This diminutive territory is so prolific in olives as to yield sustenance to 6000 inhabitants, of whom 5000 dwell in the two chief towns, Monaco, and Mentone. The former, which is the capital, is fortified. The annual revenue of the prince, who keeps a court, and about twenty men of a guard, is about four thousand pounds yearly, which arises from oil paid in kind, every family paying the thirteenth part of the produce of its olives *.

L O S T A T O D'E G L I P R E S I D I I,

Tuscan
Presidii.

A small territory on the coast of Tuscany, was reserved by Philip the Second of Spain, when he sold the rest of the Siennese to the Grand Duke in 1557,

* Baretti, vol. 2. p. 185. "Two or three streets on perpendicular rocks; eight hundred wretches dying of hunger; a decayed castle; a battalion of French troops; a few olive, orange and mulberry trees scattered over a few acres of land, themselves scattered over rocks; such is very nearly the picture of Monaco." Du Patty, p. 16. This differs from the account given by Baretti.

and retained afterward under the dominion of the Spanish monarchy; but in 1735 it was ceded together with the kingdom of Naples to Don Carlos, and still continues to be an appendage of that kingdom. Orbitello, the chief town, is, with the other fortresses in this territory, garrisoned by Neapolitan troops.

THE ITALIAN ISLANDS,

CONSISTING of three large, and a great number of small, are scattered in such a manner as not to be easily reduced into classes, but may thus be arranged for description; Corsica, Sardinia with the isles on its coast, the small islands along the southern coast of Italy, the isles of Italy in the Adriatic, the Lipari islands, Sicily with some little isles near it, and the Maltese islands.

C O R S I C A,

Corfica. Distant about fifty miles from the Tuscan coast, approaches the oval in form, but narrows into the long promontory of Cape Corso at the northern end. The general outline of its coast, especially the western, is excessively angled and irregular with creeks, bays, and promontories. Its greatest inlet is the gulf of San Fiorenzo, which, with a depth of many fathoms and a breadth of five miles, advances near ten miles into the land. The best of the many harbours which this island affords, and one which may also vie with some of the most celebrated in Europe, is that of Porto-Vecchio on the eastern

tern side about five miles long, and a mile and a half broad.

Corfica in general presents to the view an extremely rugged and uneven face. Face. The interior parts are filled with mountains, among which however are many fine vallies. The principal range of these eminences crosses the island about the latitude of Aleria, and rises to its greatest elevation in a vast mountain called Gradaccio, or Monte Rotondo, the Mons Aureus of the ancients, near the middle of the country, but more to the west and south, the loftiest pike of which is really stupendously high, overlooks all Corfica, and in this warm climate is crowned with snow almost the whole year. From this, as it were, nave or center, many chains run in various directions, one of which fills Cape Corfo with rocks and mountains. The maritime parts, however, of the island, though crossed by several ridges, are mostly of a gently waving surface, or composed of dales and moderate hills, especially on the eastern side, where a continued plain fifty miles in extent stretches from Bastia southward to beyond Aleria.

From the great elevation, swift declivity and rugged nature of this island, its rivers are numerous, rapid, and apt to swell suddenly into violent floods. The lakes of Ino and Crena, situate about two miles asunder, in the lower parts of the vast mountain Gradaccio, give source to the two chief rivers of Corfica; the former to the Golo, which, after a course of seventy English miles, falls into the sea near Mariana; the latter to the Tavignano, which

runs

runs above fifty miles, and makes its influx near Aleria. Of the smaller streams the most notable is the Restonica, whose waters renders the stones in its channel white as chalk, and give a tinge to iron, which makes it appear almost as bright as silver, and preserves it from rust.

Productions.

The productions of the soil, as well as the temperature of the air, in this island, resemble those of the Appennine and hilly tracts of the neighbouring peninsula. The country is much covered with wood. The mountains are beautified with the arbutus and various other trees, many of which are of great size. Chestnuts roasted, or made into bread, constitute in a considerable proportion the sustenance of the people. The honey is observed to have a bitter taste, on account of the box and yew, which abound in the woods. The largest beast of prey is the fox, which is here of a greater size and more ravenous than in Britain. The horses are very small and hardy, resembling the Shelties of North Britain. The neat-cattle are larger in proportion, but yield little milk, and beef of an inferior quality. Deer abound in the woods. Goats are very numerous. The sheep also are in great plenty, are almost all either black or of a dusky hue, of very coarse wool, but excellent mutton, and with commonly more than two horns each, many of them six. Here, as in Sardinia, is found a wild animal called muf-flon or muf-foli, resembling in body a stag, but in horns a ram, and supposed by some naturalists to be the sheep in its original state. Corsica is said to have no rabbits, nor any reptile armed

armed with deadly poison. Fish of various kinds visit its coasts in great shoals, and are to the inhabitants a valuable object of industry.

The length of Corsica is about one hundred and fifty English miles, and its greatest breadth fifty, yet its area is supposed not much to exceed two millions of English, or hardly to amount to one million three hundred thousand Irish acres. Relatively to this area the inhabitants are few, their number not being estimated at above one hundred and thirty thousand, or, according to the highest calculation, two hundred and twenty thousand. The peasants all dwell in villages, so that hardly one solitary cottage or farm-house is to be seen in all the island. Large tracts of land, generally covered with wood, are quite uninhabited. "The Corsican villages are frequently built upon the very summits of their mountains, on craggy cliffs of so stupendous a height, that the houses can hardly be distinguished during the day; but, at night, when the shepherds kindle their fires, the reflection of such a variety of lights makes these aerial villages have a most picturesque and pleasing appearance *."

Area and
popula-
tion.

The greatest town in this island is Bastia, containing about ten thousand souls, built on the declivity of a hill, and defended by a castle which commands the town and its harbour. Ajaccio, a

Towns.

* Boswell's Corsica from which this account of the island is almost wholly taken. The public is much obliged to this gentleman for the trouble which he took to visit Corsica and give a description of it to his countrymen.

sea-

sea-port on the western coast, inhabited by about four thousand people, is accounted the handsomest of the Corsican towns. The capital of Corsica, though containing but about three thousand inhabitants, is Corte, seated near the center of the island, at the Conflux of the Tavignano and Restonica, built partly at the foot, and partly on the declivity of a rock, in a plain surrounded by mountains of vast height. Behind the town, and overlooking it, is the citadel, accounted almost impregnable, built on a point of rock on all sides almost perpendicular, and approachable only by one very narrow passage.

History.

This island bore among the Grecians the denominations of Callista, Thera, and Cynus, but among the Romans it was known by its present name. It is first mentioned by Herodotus, according to whose account it was colonized by the Phenicians, and afterward by the Greeks. It seems also to have been, all or in part, possessed by the Ligurians, or by the Tuscans, but it fell at length totally under the dominion of Carthage, and remained in bondage under that republic, until it became a part of the conquests of the Romans 259 years before the birth of Christ. When the Roman empire was dismembered by the northern barbarians, Corsica was seized by the Goths. The Saracens afterward rendered themselves masters of the country, and are supposed to have first given to it the title of a kingdom. These were dispossessed by a king of France, either Charles Martel or Pepin, by whom the island was resigned in perpetual gift to the Pope. By the
Pope

Pope it was long after sold to the republic of Pisa, but was finally conquered by the Genoese in the beginning of the fourteenth century.

The government of Corsica by the Genoese was partial, unjust, and oppressive. The consequence was a proneness to insurrection. Many revolts were quelled, and the oppressive system continued till the year 1729, when the Corsicans took arms with such a spirit as the Genoese were quite unable to suppress. Reduced by an army of Germans sent by the emperor, they submitted on certain conditions, which being violated by the Genoese, they again tried the fortune of war in 1734. They were again brought under the hated power of Genoa by a French army in 1740, but as soon as these foreigners returned home, the islanders resumed their arms with more success than ever. Under the conduct of the famous Pascal Paoli they formed themselves into a well regulated commonwealth, which probably would have continued an active, respectable, and prosperous little state, if its happy prospects had not been fatally blasted by that baleful power which has so often proved hostile to the felicity of mankind. The Genoese despairing of being able to regain their dominion in Corsica, ceded the island to the French monarch, and forty thousand men, the flower of the French army, brought it under the dominion of France in the year 1769, after an astonishing resistance made by the heroic islanders, many of whom abandoned their unhappy country when they were no longer able to protect it from slavery. Corsica remains under the French government, but
by

THE ITALIAN ISLANDS.

by the late revolution in France, the inhabitants have recovered their liberty for the present, in union with those of that great kingdom †.

Corfica, as a part of the great political system of France, is represented in the French national assembly, and enjoys for the present time a free constitution similar to that of France. Its religion is the same with that of Italy and all the other Italian islands, and its former ecclesiastical arrangements gave occasion to the division of the island into pieves, each pieve containing a number of parishes, over which presided a pievano or superintendent. But the great division of Corfica is into two parts, on this side of the mountains, with respect to Bastia, and beyond the mountains, that is, the great range, which crosses about the latitude of Aleria.

Inhabitants.

The Corficans, in stature and aspect resemble the Scottish Highlanders. Their language is a purer

† The revolution of France, though attended with great calamities, will be certainly regarded, on the whole amount, by every well informed and impartial person as a fortunate event for mankind in general. Pathetically to lament in unintelligible rhetorical flourishes the fall of an odious despotism, which degraded with slavery many millions at home, fomented incessant disquiet by its intrigues abroad, and continually aimed at the extinction of British liberty, is a curious way of defending the constitution of Britain, a constitution which has afforded the most genuine liberty ever known, and which has no more affinity to the late government of France than light has to darkness. Such declamation is an insult on the understandings of the British nation; but—

Quid non mortalia pectora cogis,

Auri sacra fames! —

Of this I shall take more notice in treating of France.

dialect

dialect of the Italian than what is spoken in many parts of Italy. Having been now so long subjects of France, they may be expected to be much improved in their manners, but, before the French conquest, though possessed of the hardy, and some also of the amiable virtues, they appear to have been in rather a low state of civilization. Among several extraordinary customs of these islanders is this, that "when a man dies, especially if he has been assassinated, his widow, with all the married women in the village, accompanies the corpse to the grave, where after various howlings and other expressions of sorrow, the women fall upon the widow, and beat and tear her in a most miserable manner. Having thus satiated their grief and passion, they lead her back again, covered with wounds and bruises to her own habitation †."

SARDINIA,

Parted from Corsica by the strait of Bonifacio, which has a breadth of about nine miles in the narrowest part, is in magnitude the second of the Italian islands, and of in general a waving or level face interspersed with hills and mountains, of which the highest are in the northern parts. The soil, even on the mountains, is highly prolific, but agriculture is in a most wretched state, and many tracts are not only waste, but even noxious to the human constitution by marshes and stagnant waters. This is doubtless

† Boswell.

THE ITALIAN ISLANDS.

the main cause of the insalubrity generally attributed to the air of this island.

The productions of Sardinia are similar in general to those of Italy, but it abounds in sheep, the number of which in the island is said to be 1,600,000; and on its coasts is a valuable fishery of tunnies, anchovies, and other kinds of fish.

The length of this island is about 160 English miles, its breadth about 60, and its area about five millions of English, or three millions of Irish acres; but so much is the bounty of nature neglected from unfortunate circumstances both ecclesiastical and civil, that this large fertile country scarcely contains half a million of people. How different is this from the state of population in the territories of Lucca and of Genoa? Of these inhabitants twenty-five thousand are assigned to Cagliari the capital, seated on a hill in the south of the island, defended by a castle, and enjoying the advantage of a good harbour. About half the number are supposed to inhabit Sassari, otherwise named Lugodori, the second town of the island, situate toward the north-east in a plain, and remarkable for a great aqueduct, by which it is supplied with water. These two cities are capitals respectively of the two provinces into which the island is divided. These provinces are termed capes: the southern being named Cabo di Cagliari, and the northern Cabo di Lugodori.

Sardinia, denominated by the ancient Greeks Ichnusa and Sandaliotis, appears to have undergone for many centuries nearly the same revolutions as
Corfica;

Corfica; colonized by the Phenicians, seized by the Carthaginians, and conquered from them by the Romans at the same time with Corfica. After the fall of the western empire of the Romans, it was held by the eastern or Greek empire, until it was dismembered from it by the Saracens in the year 807. From them it was long after taken by the Genoese and Pisans, who quarrelled about the possession, and were themselves dispossessed by James King of Arragon in 1324, at the instigation of the Pope. Under the Arragonian or Spanish government it remained without any great interruption near four centuries, until, in the war between France and Austria about the right of succession to the throne of Spain, it was reduced by a British fleet in 1708, and put into the hands of the Austrians. Spain recovered it in 1717, but two years after it was finally separated from the Spanish monarchy and ceded, with the title of King, to the Duke of Savoy, under whose dominion it has now remained above seventy years.

A viceroy, changed every third year, administers the government of this island under the king, in whom is vested the whole authority both legislative and executive; but from long established custom, great privileges highly pernicious to the community in general are allowed to the nobility. A kind of parliament, or assembly of the states of the island is held merely to grant subsidies to the king, whose revenue in this island is said not to amount to sixty thousand pounds yearly, and of this sum four-fifths are computed to be expended on the charges of its internal

internal government, so that not twelve thousand pounds go to the royal coffers at Turin.

The inhabitants of Sardinia, a mixed race, and not much unlike the Corsicans in personal appearance, have been so long under the government of Spain that they mostly speak the Spanish language, and have imbibed much, but not the best part, of the Spanish manners. The grossest ignorance, superstition, and bigotry, prevail in this nation of islanders, and by the oppressions of a pampered nobility and clergy, the common people are kept in the most wretched poverty and indolence.

Sardinian
isles.

The isles on the coast of Sardinia consist chiefly of San Antiogo, San Pietro, Asinaria, Martha, and Madalena, all of which belong to the kingdom of Sardinia. San Antiogo abounds in mines of lead, and was called by the ancients Mæliboldes, Enosina, and Plombia. San Pietro, six or seven English miles in diameter, named by the ancients the isle of Hawks, has the advantage of a spacious harbour. Asinaria, or Zanara, the greatest of all these isles, near thirty English miles in circuit, bore anciently the name of Hercules' island. It is filled with mountains which are covered with wood.

THE ITALIAN ISLANDS.

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THE

SMALLER ISLANDS

ON THE

SOUTHERN COAST OF ITALY,

ARE composed principally of Capraia, Elba, Pianosa, Giglio, Ponza, Procida, Ischia, and Capri.

Capraia, Caprara, or Capraria, situate not much above twenty miles eastward from Cape Corso, is about fifteen miles in circuit, of an extremely mountainous, dry, and craggy surface, and so pointed all around with rocks, as to be almost inaccessible in every part excepting one harbour, over which stands the town of Capraia with a citadel on a rock, which commands both town and harbour. The inhabitants, above three thousand in number, are almost all assembled in the town, and subsist chiefly by fishing*. This island bore anciently the name of *Ægilium*, and in the early times of Christianity was a place of religious retirement. In later times it became an

* Boswell's *Corfica*, p. 256, 257. Pococke's *Description of the East*, vol. 3. p. 180.

appendage of Corsica and was seized by the Genoese in 1507.

Elba.

Elba, distant from the Tuscan coast about ten miles, approaches in shape an equilateral triangle, each side of which may be about twenty miles in length. Extremely uneven and mountainous throughout, it rises to its greatest elevation on the southwestern side. It is of a shallow soil, unprolific in corn, and yields little more than half the quantity consumed in the year by its inhabitants, who are calculated to be seven thousand in number. Four thousand tuns of salt are annually made near the town of Porto-Ferraio, and the island abounds in loadstone and iron-ore, by the latter of which most of the forges of Italy are supplied.

The iron-ore procured from Elba is found in the north-eastern angle of the island, where is an entire hill composed solely of this substance, near the village of Rio, under which the only rivulet in all Elba has its source. This rivulet runs only a mile till it meets the sea, but its stream is so copious, that it turns seventeen mills in that short space. This hill of solid ore is "worked in three terraces after the manner of a fine quarry of stone, by clearing away the top, and hewing or blasting the rock, till it drops in shivers into the area, from which it is wheeled to the place of sale. The circumference of this iron hill is near three miles, and the depth of the ore to the stony foundation, about three hundred feet. Where it has not yet been touched, or has lain undisturbed for many years, vines and other plants grow tolerably well on the surface. The place

place where the present works are carried on resembles a funnel with one side broken down. About seven hundred pounds weight of gun powder are consumed annually in blasting, and one hundred and six men constantly employed with the pick-axe or barrow. From a scarcity of wood none of the ore is smelted on the island. The ore is beautiful, abounding in rainbow shoots and chrySTALLIZATION; but although it appears to the eye and the feel to be almost one solid mass of iron, it is by no means so rich as many iron ores in the north of Europe, and hardly yields half its weight in pure metal*." The quantity annually sold is about thirty-five millions of pounds weight, and the Prince of Piombino, to whom these treasures belong, receives every year, on an average, above nine thousand five hundred pounds clear of all expences.

At the south-east cape is the Monte della Calamita, so called from the load-stone with which it abounds. The best magnets in Elba are found near the sea, and beneath the surface of the earth. It appears from good authority that the needle of the mariner's compass becomes irregular in approaching within at least a league of Elba, some say even four leagues.

This island, known to the ancient Grecians by the name of Aithalia, and to the Romans by that of Ilva, is said to have been colonized from the

* Swinburne's Sicilies. From this author vol. 1. sect. 1, 2, 3, the account here given of Elba is taken.

city of Volterra, which was the capital of Tuscany in times of antiquity. After various revolutions it became divided, as it is at present, into three shares. Of these by much the largest belongs to the Prince of Piombino. To the King of Naples belongs, as a part of the Tuscan Presidii, a small territory on the eastern side with the town of Porto-Longone. On the same side, farther to the north, is a district subject to the Great Duke of Tuscany, containing Porto-Ferraio, the only town of any consideration in Elba. It is very prettily built on a shelving rock, overlooking a fine circular bay, the streets and fortifications rising one above another like rows of seats in an ancient amphitheatre, and presenting a most beautiful spectacle to those who approach by water.

Pianosa.

Pianosa, or Planosa, called anciently Planasia, or Planaria, is a small isle, lying south-westward of Elba, so low and flat as not to be discernible beyond the distance of four or five leagues. It belongs to the Prince of Piombino. It contains the ruins of ancient buildings, but is at present destitute of inhabitants, none daring to settle on it for fear of the Corsairs of Barbary*.

Ponza.

Ponza, in length near five English miles, in breadth from five hundred feet to half a mile, contains near seventeen hundred souls including the garrison. It is entirely composed of Volcanic matter, and environed by innumerable detached rocks, most of which are lava. Many of these contain

* Pococke, vol. 3. p. 181.

basaltes of regular forms, but not in large columns †.

Ischia, named by the ancients Inarime, Arime, Ischia, and Pithecusæ, is a most fertile, beautiful, and populous island, rising near the Neapolitan coast to a vast height above the surface of the deep, and ending in a mountain called Epomes, from the summit of which the whole island shelves with a gentle declivity to the sea on every side, excepting the northern which is more abrupt and forms at the mountain a tremendous precipice. The pinnacle of the mountain is a white rock of the sort called Tufa, in the heart of which are hewn a church, cells, galleries, and other conveniences, for the accommodation of six or seven hermits, who dwell in this exalted and sequestered spot. In Ischia, all of which appears to have been produced by volcanic fire, are hot vapor-baths, frequented by persons afflicted with cutaneous and other disorders. The inhabitants may perhaps amount to sixteen or twenty thousand. The island since the times of antiquity has always followed the fortune of the kingdom of Naples. Its capital, named Burgo d'Ischia, is a pretty town composed of white buildings ‡.

Capri, the Capræ of the ancient Romans, about Capri. five miles long and two broad, situate near the promontory of Sorrento, is high, rugged, and inaccessible to vessels excepting one place of debarcation. It consists of two lofty jagged mountains standing

† Letter from Sir William Hamilton to Sir Joseph Banks, Phil. Trans. vol. 76.

‡ Swinburne, vol. 1. sect. 2 and 3.

eastward and westward connected by a ridge, on which is built the town of Capri, where resides a bishop, who, from the revenue arising to him from the vast number of quails taken here, is ludicrously denominated the bishop of quails. Great part of the island is waste, being too rocky to admit any species of culture, but every spot, where the hoe can be used, is rich in productions. So many beauties are united as render Capri a most charmingly romantic retreat, and as such it was used by Tiberius Cæsar, of whose grand edifices a few ruins are still to be seen §.

Concerning the isles of Giglio, and Procida, scarcely any thing worth the reader's attention is related by travellers. The same is the case with other isles of this class, as Gorgona, Gianuti, and some more. Gorgona is mountainous and almost inaccessible: Gianuti on the contrary is flat and low.

THE ISLES OF ITALY IN THE ADRIATIC,

CONSISTING chiefly of a few in or near the gulf of Trieste, some in the neighbourhood of Venice, and the Tremiti islands near Monte Gargano, have nothing which requires any long description. Among the first of these are Grado and Cor-

§ Swinburne, vol. 2. sect. 1.

gle, each with a town of the same denomination, subject to Venice. Among those which form a chain to shelter Venice, as it were, from the storms of the Adriatic, are Malamocca and Chiozza with towns so called. The isles of Tremiti, called anciently the Diomedean islands, are three in number, San Dominico, San Nicolo, and La Caprara. These are chiefly remarkable for a kind of owl, called the Diomedean bird, which is supposed to be peculiar to them, and which is described as having a toothed or ferrated beak, flaming eyes, and a cry somewhat resembling the human voice. In San Dominico is a convent of prebendaries, whom the simple inhabitants are said to acknowledge as their judges and immediate governors.

THE LIPARI ISLANDS,

Lying to the north of Sicily, and politically united to that island, were by the ancient Greeks denominated Hephæstiades, by the Romans the Volcanian and Æolian isles. They are commonly reckoned eleven in number, of which three are very small: the rest are Stromboli, Panaria, Lipari, Volcano, Salini, Felicudi, Alicudi, and Ustica. They abound in sulphur, alum, and nitre, and have, where culture is applied, a fertile soil; but most of them are uninhabited. They seem to have all been produced by the eruptions of subterranean fire, and several of them continue to emit smoke, particularly Volcano, and a smaller isle called Volcanello, but none of them flame, excepting Stromboli.

Stromboli,

THE ITALIAN ISLANDS.

Stromboli, or Strongyle, is a mountain about ten miles in circuit, rising abruptly from the sea, and discernible in clear weather at the distance of twenty-five leagues in the day, but still farther in the night by an incessant flame which issues from a crater in the side of the mountain about two hundred yards below the summit. Lipari, or Lipara, with a town of the same appellation, is the greatest of this group, and about eighteen miles in circumference. It was rendered a desert, its inhabitants being carried into slavery by Turkish corsairs in 1544, but was repeopled and fortified by the Emperor Charles the Fifth. Felicudi and Alicudi rise from the water in the form of Cones. Ustica, the most western of all these isles, and situate far from the rest, has no great elevation above the sea. It was uninhabited until a colony of eight hundred persons was lately sent hither, and a town and fort built, to prevent a resort of Turkish pirates, who had made it a station to watch for prizes.

S I C I L Y,

By far in every respect the most considerable of all the islands pertaining to Italy, stands parted from the toe of that boot-formed peninsula by a strait, which has in some parts a breadth of only four, in one place not so much as two English miles, denominated, from a pharos or light-house erected on it for the direction of mariners, the Faro of Messina. This narrow strait, shallow and of a rocky channel, though it often appears to flow like a tranquil river,

Faro.

is

is often also, particularly at certain situations of the sun and moon, disturbed by strong irregular currents and innumerable whirlpools; its bottom, though in general shallow, having in it some deep caverns or pits. Among the ancients it was famous for the terrors occasioned to navigators by the rock of Scylla and the whirlpool of Charybdis. Whether the Faro has undergone since the times of Homer any great alteration is an undecided question, but the situation of Charybdis is a matter of dispute *, though the rock of Scylla on the Calabrian coast is well known, which, if it be not so formidable by its shipwrecks to the navigators of the present age, has at least continued to be altogether terrific by the loud bellowing of the billows dashed against the broken caverns at its foot in stormy weather; but what change it may have sustained by the earthquake of 1783, by which this part of the coast has been much deranged, I am not clearly informed. The Faro is also remarkable for a most beautiful phenomenon, or illusion of the sight, called by the Sicilians *la Fata Morgana*, occasioned, in certain states of the weather, and certain positions of the sun and spectator, by a very multiplied reflexion of objects from the water and incumbent air, by which is presented to the ravish-

* Swinburne, (vol. 2. sect. 56.) and Monsieur De Non's Travels in Sicily and Malta, (London 1789, p. 405, 406.) are of quite opposite opinions; but that of the former, who supposes great changes to have happened, is favored by the volcanic nature of the countries, and particularly by the earthquake of 1783.

ed eye the semblance of many thousands, of the most regular pilasters, arcades, castles, towns, colonnades, trees, and other fantastic forms, varied with the circumstances of the air, and passing along the strait in quick succession †.

Form.

Sicily is in form almost a triangle, of which the three angular points are the famous promontories of Pelorus, Pachynus, and Lilybœum, now denominated in the same order the capes of Faro, Passaro, and Boco. It is no where deeply indented by the sea, and few good harbours are found on its coasts; but all around are many roads, where vessels may ride at anchor in fine weather, and, by means of lighters, receive or discharge their cargoes in full security.

Face.

The greater part of this island is of a high uneven surface; the hills generally steep, and the vales narrow. Chains of high mountains run in various directions, and project in many places into the surrounding sea. Among these we may trace two ca-

† For this phenomenon naturalists have accounted from the nature of the Faro and its shores, and from the laws of optics. Illusions of a like nature have often been experienced in polar and high mountainous regions. Such have also sometimes, but extremely seldom, been seen in situations neither mountainous nor polar. I myself was once charmed with a phenomenon of this nature near the Earl of Courtown's seat in the county of Wexford. Standing on a rock I saw on the surface of the sea at the distance of about a mile from land the semblance of a great and magnificent city, very like Dublin, which soon began to retire slowly, and at last disappeared, nearly in the same manner as a city disappears to a person in a ship under full sail. For the Fata Morgana, See Swinburne, vol. 1. sect. 48.

pital

pital ridges, which seem to give to this island its triangular form. The mountains of Taormina, which are supposed to be a continuation of the great Appennine ridge of Italy, appear to constitute part of a concatenation, which extends through the whole length of Sicily, from the Cape of Pelorus, or Faro, in the north-east, to that of Lilybœum, or Boco, in the west, comprehending in its course the mountains of the Nebrodes, Mount Cratas, and others. From this long chain the high Erean mountains depart with a southerly direction, and, joining by intermediate ridges to those of Calatagerone, are continued under other names, in a south-easterly course, to Pachynus or Cape Passaro. Between these main ridges are some large levels. The greatest on the southern coast are the Geloan plains about the river Salso. The whole eastern side of the island, from the mountains of Taormina in the north-east to those of Calatagerone in the south-east, would form one vast level, or nearly level surface, were it not that the intermediate space is in great part occupied by the huge bulk of Etna, an immense volcano, whose snowy and smoking summit is seen to tower above all the other mountains of Sicily, as the lofty spire of a vast cathedral above the rest of the edifices in an extensive city.

This enormous volcano, called also Monte Gibel-Etna, lo, is an insulated mountain of nearly a conic form, occupying with its base an area above one hundred and fifty English miles in circuit, and rising to the altitude of at least three thousand five hundred yards, or two English miles, perpendicular
above

above the level of the sea. Its sides are waved with hills and vallies. All around on its declivities are great numbers of *Montagnuole*, or little conical double pointed mountains, formed at various periods, each by a single eruption of flaming matter from the side of Etna.

The surface of this vast mountain is divided by nature into three regions or zones, one above another, between which, though they are very distinct in the main, the discriminating lines are not strongly marked; the borders of one being blended with those of another. The lowest, and by far the greatest of these is the *regione culta*, or inhabited zone, a tract of an astonishingly luxuriant soil, extending about eighteen English miles, in breadth, from the circumference of the base up the acclivity of the mountain around. Next above this the *nemorosa*, or woody zone, a forest six miles in breadth, begirds this colossal mountain. In this forest the chestnut trees exceed all others in size, the trunks of some, in this volcanic and cinereous earth, being more than fifty feet in circuit. Not only of these, but of all known vegetable productions, the greatest is the *castagno di cento cavalli*, or chestnut of a hundred horses, whose trunk is near two hundred feet in girth. This trunk, from the nature of this kind of tree, whose heart is apt to decay without the death of the vegetable, is split into six or seven parts, without any obstruction of its vegetative power, and one of the apertures is wide enough to admit two carriages abreast. The highest of the three regions is the barren zone, which,

which, with a breadth of five or six miles environs the mountain near its summit. The upper part of this girdle is covered with snow all the year; but the lower part is bare except in winter.

The summit of Etna, which at a vast distance appears to be a single cone, and on a nearer approach a double vertex, is found, on actual examination, which extremely few have been able to make, to consist of three hills, placed in the form of an equilateral triangle. Between these lie the crater, or craters; one principal cavity of sixty or a hundred feet in diameter being situate in the middle, and a multitude of others of a smaller size about it. From these hollows ascends an incessant smoke, and sometimes, but much less frequently than from Vesuvius, flames and showers of red hot stones. Vast floods of liquid lava have at different times poured from its sides, some of them many miles in breadth, many feet in depth, and flowing through a great length of course. It is observed that the lavas of Etna are far harder than those of Vesuvius; their surface being exposed a far longer period of time to the action of the air, before it becomes capable of producing any sort of moss or other vegetables*.

Sicily

* For Etna see Swinburne, vol. 2. sect. 53, 54. De Non. p. 23.—68. Professor Bartel's Journey to Etna. Also Brydone's Tour through Sicily and Malta, let. 9, 10, and 11. Mr. Brydone however is detected by Professor Bartels in having imposed on the public in pretending to describe the summit of this volcano, which he never visited, he having ascended someway up the side but by no means to the top. This lively Mr. Brydone
has

Waters.

Sicily contains few lakes, and none of any great size: the most considerable is that of Biveri near Lentini. From the high and mountainous nature of the country the rivers are numerous, but few of them have any great length of course or body of water, excepting that by heavy rains the floods are sometimes great and violent. Their sides are generally steep and craggy, excepting that some, before their influx into the sea, meet with plains of a very deep soil. The greatest is the Salso, anciently called Himera, which springs from the great northern ridge, not far from a much smaller stream called also Himera, and runs to the south in a course of near a hundred English miles including its windings. The next in magnitude is the Giaretta or Symœthus, whose stream is parted from the former by the Erean mountains, and runs with an easterly course about eighty miles. Mineral waters variously impregnated, and of various temperature, as also vapor-baths, are found in several parts of Sicily, particularly at Termini on the northern coast near the ancient city of Himera, and at Sciacca, or Thermæ Selinuntiae, near the southern toward the west,

has also, in an ostentatious display of his profound physical knowledge, (vol. 2. let. 26.) betrayed an ignorance, and an absurd misconception of the Newtonian system of astronomy. If he had known as much as the poet, he would either have been silent, or spoken to better purpose on the subject.

"All intellectual eye! our solar round
First gazing through, he by the blended power
Of gravitation and *projection* saw
The whole in silent harmony revolve."

Thomson.

where

where some of the springs are hot enough to boil eggs, others tepid, and others cold.

Sicily being situate very little farther to the south than the kingdom of Naples, differs hardly in any sensible degree from southern Italy in temperature or productions. Some parts are so elevated as to be cool even in summer, but the lowlands in that season suffer a violent heat, and the Scirocco is hardly tolerable. In the months about the brumal solstice the rains are abundant; but frost and snow are so little known, that these months may be said to be the season of spring, not of winter. Since the most remote periods, in which this island has been noticed by historians, it has been celebrated for its prodigious fertility of soil, and has been, as it still is, the never failing granary of the neighbouring countries. So great is the luxuriance, in several places, particularly in the parts about Etna, where the fertility is augmented by the sprinkling of ashes wafted by the winds from the crater of the mountain, and perhaps also by the internal heat of the volcano, and of the lavas, that the sheep would be killed by the too great richness of their pastures, if they were not preserved by the constant care of the shepherds, who frequently draw blood from their ears to relieve them. Two or three abundant crops are easily raised in the year from one field, and many fruit trees bear twice, once early in the summer, and once in September*. Corn flourishes almost without culture, insomuch

Tempera-
ture and
Produce.

* Swinburne, vol. 2. sect. 30.

that

that unsown fields, from which wheat has been reaped the preceding year, bear a crop as flourishing in appearance as those which have received the seed in the usual manner of agriculture †.

Sicily cultivates very little of oats, millet, or maize, but much barley and vast quantities of wheat. Its plantations of sugar were formerly great, but at present are not sufficient for the supply of internal consumption, and are principally found on the southern part of the eastern coast. The great staple article of exportation is wheat, of which, notwithstanding the miserable cultivation of a most oppressed peasantry, the island is said to yield sixty millions of Winchester bushels annually. Corn is preserved in Sicily, as in Barbary and some other countries, for years together, in subterranean repositories or caverns of rock, where it is closely rammed, and carefully closed from the air. The next article of importance for the supply of foreign countries is silk, of which the value of near one hundred and ninety thousand pounds is annually sent abroad. Other subjects of exportation are manna to the yearly amount of about eighteen thousand pounds, chiefly from the northern coast; ashes of alkali or barrilla to the value of above thirty-six thousand pounds, mostly from the southern; almonds to the value of above fifty thousand pounds, chiefly from about Girgenti; nuts of four different kinds to the quantity of four hundred thousand Winchester bushels, and the value of about twenty-

† Swinburne, vol. 2. sect. 33.

seven thousand pounds; liquorice to the value of eighty thousand pounds; lemons to the quantity of thirty thousand chests, and oranges to the quantity of three thousand chests; oil of olives to the quantity of nearly a hundred thousand Winchester bushels, and the value of above sixty-five thousand pounds; Cantharides to the value of above eleven hundred pounds; and canary seed, pistachio nuts, sumack, kidney-beans, wine, brandy, cheese both of goats milk and of cows milk, salt, sulphur, and salt fish, particularly tunny, to an uncertain amount. The commerce of the island centers chiefly in the cities of Palermo and Messina †.

Salt is made from sea-water by the heat of the sun, particularly at Trapani in the western angle; but fossil salt is also found, a whole mountain of this substance, white as Parian marble, and worked in the manner of a quarry, standing not far from Castro Giovani in the interior parts of the island §. Sulphur is procured near Palma, Mazareno, and other places, by drawing the stones impregnated with this substance from the quarries, and laying them on a furnace until the sulphureous particles are separated by liquefaction, and received into cauldrons at the bottom. The flies called Cantharides are, a little before sun-rise, at which time they are in a torpid state, thrown to the ground by shaking the trees on which they take their nightly rest, and

† For the exports see Swinburne, vol. 2. sect. 58. Sessini's Letters on Sicily.

§ De Non. p. 100.

received on mats or carpets spread for the purpose, after which they are dried for exportation. A plant called *pampera* or *parroca*, growing in tranquil waters about the river *Anapus* near *Syracuse*, is said to be the same with the Egyptian *papyrus*, and to be found in no other part of Europe than the pools about this river *. A kind of wild wheat, with very short, knotty, and crooked stalks, is found growing among other wild herbs, in the plains of *Lentini* in the eastern part of the island †. The animal productions differ very little from those of the neighbouring *Neapolitan* kingdom. A great proportion of the sheep are black, and wild fowl are in surprizing abundance.

Area and
popula-
tion.

A triangle applied to *Sicily*, with its three vertical points on the three promontories of the island, has about one hundred and thirty-three English miles for the length of its base, and two hundred and ten for its greatest side. By multiplying half of the altitude into the base, and making allowance for the deviations of the coasts from the lines of the triangle, its area is found to be above seven millions three hundred thousand English, or four millions and a half of Irish acres; which, considering the amazing fertility of the soil, might under a good government easily maintain four or five millions of people; but the population of this most prolific, but ill governed island, where famine and rags are the portion of the unhappy peasants in the midst of

* De Non, p. 361—363. Swinburne, vol. 2. sect. 49.

† De Non, p. 397, 398.

abundance,

abundance, falls very short of this number; a million and a half of inhabitants exceeding the highest calculation hitherto made. Under the iron gripe of feudal rapacity industry sickens: the operations of agriculture are confined and feeble. The lands on which tillage is bestowed are managed in a very slovenly manner: many tracts are quite desert, and some, covered with stagnant water, emit pestilential vapors, which bring mortal fevers to such as happen to spend a night in their vicinity. The face of the country, notwithstanding its wonderful exuberance of soil, is inferior in beauty to that of Italy, because it is in general without wood, which is so scarce that straw in several places is used instead of it for fuel. The terror occasioned by the corsairs of Barbary contributes to render the population thin on the coasts of this island, particularly the southern; the inhabitants retiring back from the sea, or collecting into towns for security.

The towns of Sicily are generally built on high Towns. situations on hills or mountains, most of them having been founded in times of danger and hostility. Thus the city of Calatagerone, containing seventeen thousand inhabitants, among whom are many gentry with elegant carriage and equipages, stands on the top of a steep insulated mountain, up the acclivity of which no carriage can be brought otherwise than by being taken in pieces and loaded on the backs of mules or asses §.

§ Swinburne, vol. 2. sect. 44.

Palermo.

The capital of Sicily, containing about one hundred and twenty thousand inhabitants, and surrounded with a wall of nearly a circular form about a mile in diameter, is Palermo, anciently Panormus, situate in a narrow plain, confined between a curved range of mountains and a spacious bay, which is neither well protected from the north-easterly nor westerly winds. The city gives a beautiful prospect in the approach to it from the sea. It is divided into four parts by two great and beautiful streets, intersecting each the other at right angles, and forming at their intersection an area from which the four great gates of the city are seen at once. One of these two streets, called the Cassaro terminates at a triumphal arch, which opens on a fine quay, called the Marino, which serves as a public walk to the gentry of Palermo. Most of the other streets are narrow, crooked, ill paved, and in winter dirty. "Few public or private buildings exhibit any traces of true modern architecture. The viceroy's palace, which stands near the south gate, is an immense mass of discordant parts built at different periods*."

Maffina.

Messina, named Zancé by the Grecians in the most ancient times of their navigation, is reported to have contained a hundred thousand inhabitants before the year 1743, when it was wasted by a pestilence. Its population since that catastrophe is rated at twenty-five, or thirty thousand. In 1783

* Swinburne, vol. 2. sect. 26 and 27. See also De Non, p. 112—126. Brydane, vol. 2. let. 22.

it was ruined by an earthquake, and has not as yet quite repaired the damage. Hardly any city in the world appeared more beautiful toward the sea, it being built on the sweep of a declivity, along the foot of a noble range of mountains, which press closely on the shore, so as to leave little space between them and the water; while the less handsome parts of the town were concealed by the Palazzata, which was a regular ornamental range of lofty houses, with nineteen arches or gates answering to so many streets, following the semicircular bend of the port for above a mile, and forming one of the finest lines of buildings in Europe. The harbour of a semicircular form, about four miles in compass, was remarkably safe, with a depth of water of seventy fathoms; the ground sinking suddenly to form, as it were, a cavern at the edge of the Faro, which strait is in general shallow: but of what changes it may have suffered by the earthquake I am not informed†.

Catania, rendered famous by its misfortunes, as Catania. having been repeatedly destroyed by volcanic eruptions, is inhabited by about thirty thousand souls, and may be accounted at present the second city in Sicily. It having been quite ruined by an earthquake in 1693, when above eighteen thousand people perished in it, its present edifices are of a late erection, and compose a very handsome town. The principal streets, paved with lava, are straight and

† Swinburne, vol. 2. sect. 56. De Non, p. 1—9. Brydone, vol. 1. let. 283.

wide, perhaps too wide for this climate, the heat at noon in summer being hardly supportable from want of shade. A church belonging to a Benedictine convent in this town is accounted the largest in all Sicily. Catania, though close to the sea, is destitute of a port, its harbour having been filled with melted metal which poured in a deluge from Etna. On this vast mass of lava, long since become hard, the Prince of Biscaris, a Sicilian nobleman, has built a palace, has made gardens, by means of earth brought from other places, and has even formed ponds of fresh water by excavations in this hard substance †.

Girgenti.

On the top of one of the highest hills on the southern coast, and at the distance of about four miles from a harbour not perfectly commodious, stands the city of Girgenti, containing about twenty thousand inhabitants, and covering the summit and sides of the hill in the manner of terraces, while the cathedral and castle appear above all the other buildings. Not however for any thing belonging to its present state, but for its monuments of antiquity, is Girgenti remarkable. These are the ruins of the vast ancient Grecian city of Aeragas, called by the Romans Agrigentum, which in the times of its prosperity is reported to have contained eight hundred thousand inhabitants, a number which appears to me much beyond the truth.

Antiquities.

The principal part of the ancient city stood in the vale below the hill of the modern Girgenti, but on

† Swinburne, vol. 2. sect. 51 and 52. De Non, p. 33—53.

the top of this hill was an edifice of great antiquity, called the citadel of Cocalus. Among the numerous and extensive ruins of Acragas, which now lie interspersed with corn-fields and orchards, are the remnants of four temples, which stood nearly in a right line not far from the south wall of the city. One of these almost intire, improperly called the Temple of Concord, stands in a most striking point of view, and is a majestic structure, supported by thirteen large fluted Doric columns at each side, and six at each end, whose simplicity of architecture has a pleasing effect on the eye. The greatest of these, and of all the temples of Sicily, was that of Jupiter Olympius, whose gigantic ruins lie quite prostrate on the ground. The length of this temple, according to historians, was three hundred and seventy feet, and its height, exclusively of the foundations, or basement story, two hundred and twenty*.

The modern Syracuse, containing a population of about eighteen thousand, and confined within the island of Ortygia, one of the five parts of which the ancient city consisted, boasts more extensive ruins than those of Acragas, but in a still more shattered condition. The ancient Syracuse, one of the greatest and wealthiest cities of all antiquity, contained within its walls an area twenty two English miles and a half in circuit. This great space, except Ortygia, is now covered with vineyards and fields of corn intermixed with scattered ruins. The

* Swinburne, vol. 2. sect. 39, 40, 41. De Non, p. 198—239. Brydone, vol. 2. let. 17, 18.

most intire edifice of Grecian antiquity remaining in this city seems to be a temple of Minerva in the modern town, converted into a Christian cathedral, and much altered for the worse in its architecture by that conversion. In the division called Acradina are found vast catacombs, or an assemblage of subterranean vaults, cut in streets, in a continued stratum of soft stone, with more care and regularity than those of either Rome or Naples. In the division called Neapolis are still to be seen such parts of a theatre as were formed by excavations in the solid rock, but the other parts of this Grecian fabric are destroyed. Among many other remnants of the ancient Syracuse are the Latomæ, or quarries, which are huge excavations made in the rocky substratum of the soil for the purpose of procuring materials for the building of the city. One of these of a vast extent, sunk to the depth of a hundred feet below the surface of the ground, is converted into a noble garden effectually protected from every wind. But the most extraordinary excavation is a most sonorous cavern called the ear of Dionysius, as being supposed, on very dubious grounds, to have been used by a tyrant of that name for listening to the conversation of prisoners confined in the cavern. It is eighteen feet wide, fifty-eight high, and runs into the heart of the hill to the length, as it is said, of two hundred and fifty feet in the form of the letter S. The roof is coved, gradually narrowing to almost as sharp a termination as a Gothic arch. The sounds are supposed to have been conveyed

conveyed along the top of the roof to a hearing place, which has long ago lost its virtue †.

At Catania, where an ancient city lies buried under matter disgorged from Etna, great part of it under the foundations of the present town, many reliques of antiquity have been discovered by the Prince of Biscaris, who has caused excavations to be formed for that purpose. In this class we may reckon a Roman amphitheatre and a Grecian theatre, both built of lava, which is found to be as firm as any other substance to resist unmelted the fiery torrents of liquefied matter of the same kind. These buildings are even founded on lava, for this part of the Sicilian coast is imagined to be composed of seven stratum of lava, one above another, with stratum of soil between them; each flood of melted metal having stood long enough to have a soil formed on it before it was covered by a succeeding inundation ‡.

At Taormina, the ancient Taurominium, are the remains of one of the noblest and best situated theatres of all antiquity, hewn in great part out of the rock. The diameter of the semicircular part, where the audience sat, is one hundred and forty English feet. Even in its present ruinous condition it is so sonorous that the least articulated sound is heard from every part of it, and wherever it is struck it resounds like a musical instrument §.

† Swinburne, vol. 2. sect. 46, 47, 48. De Non, p. 311—358. Brydone, vol. 1. let. 12.

‡ Swinburne, vol. 2. sect. 51. De Non, p. 38,—44. Brydone, vol. 1. let. 7, 8.

§ Swinburne, vol. 2. sect. 55.

I shall omit many other Sicilian antiquities, and only notice the ruins of Selinus, on the southern coast near the western angle. These form one of the most extraordinary assemblages of the kind in Europe, consisting of stupendous heaps of ruins, with many columns still erect, and appearing to travellers at a distance, from the hill on which they rest, like a town of considerable size with a crowd of steeples. The principal of these heaps are the shattered members of three Doric temples, thirty yards asunder, in a direct line from north to south. Of the three, though they have all been great and majestic, the most northerly was the most sublime; its remnants being quite gigantic, and seeming to have required the violence of an earthquake, rather than the exertions of human malignity, to subvert them ||.

History.

These monuments, and almost all others in the island which merit attention, are of Grecian workmanship. Though the Phenicians made some very early settlements on the coasts of Sicily, these were quite eclipsed by Grecian colonies, which augmented so rapidly in this exuberant region, that some of them far surpassed the parent states in wealth and population, particularly Syracuse, the power and opulence of which might appear incredible, if the fact were not evinced by the combined attestations of historians. From the Greeks the island received the names of Trinacria and of Triquetra, on account of its three promontories and its triangular form. It was also called Sicania from a people who dwelt

|| Swinburne, vol. 2. sect. 34. De Non, p. 177—187.

in it. But concerning the different nations, who, under the denominations of Aborigines, Cyclopes, Sicani, and Siculi, are said to have successively possessed this country, we know nothing certain, excepting that those who inhabited it when the Greeks arrived, were obliged to retire into the interior mountainous parts, and in a lapse of ages became undistinguishably blended with the foreign colonists.

The Grecian states of this island were checked in their prosperity, and cruelly harrassed, by the Carthaginians, who long persevered in fruitless attempts to enslave all Sicily. In the fifth century before Christ they destroyed Selinus, Agrigentum, and other Greek cities, and though they were repressed by repeated overthrows, they still retained possession of the western parts, leaving the southern and eastern coasts to the Greeks, and the interior mountains to the old natives. Affailed themselves by the all conquering force of Rome, they abandoned the island, which, two hundred and forty years before the Christian era, became a province of the Roman dominion, excepting that Syracuse remained some time a distinct state, intirely, however, under the influence of Rome, and at length reduced to total subjection in the second Punic war, two hundred and eleven years before Christ.

When the Roman empire fell, the coasts of Sicily were ravaged by the Vandals and the Goths; but they retained not their possessions, and the island became a part of the empire of Constantinople. From this empire it was conquered by the Saracens

Saracens about the year 827 of the Christian era: they made Palermo their capital, and held the dominion above two hundred years; but in the year 1072 they were obliged to yield to the prowess of the Normans, who had made a formidable settlement in the kingdom of Naples, and the island was ceded to Roger, brother to Robert the Norman Duke of Puglia, under the title of the Great Earl-dom of Sicily. Another Roger, son of this first Earl, united by inheritance, in the year 1127, the Neapolitan dominions on the continent with the Sicilian island, and assumed, as more suitable to his ample dominions, the title of King.

As an appendage of Naples, this island came under the power of Charles of Anjou and the French, who behaved with such licentious cruelty, that a general insurrection of the Sicilians and massacre of the French was the consequence in 1282. A revolt, called the Sicilian vespers, because it began when the bells rung for evening service, commenced at Palermo, and not a Frenchman in Sicily escaped with life, excepting only William Porcelet, who was spared in the general havoc on account of his exemplary piety and justice. The Sicilians for protection threw themselves into the arms of Peter King of Arragon, and their country continued long disunited from Naples under Princes of the Arragonian line. On the extinction of this line, the latter princes of which governed in person, having no other dominions than this island itself, Sicily fell to the possession of Ferdinand of Castile, whose son, Alphonfus the magnificent, made a suc-

a successful attack on the kingdom of Naples in 1435, and united that realm with this noble island. From that time Sicily has followed the fortune of Naples, excepting that in 1713 it was given to the Duke of Savoy, who in seven years after was obliged to relinquish it in lieu of Sardinia, by which act it was reunited to the Neapolitan kingdom.

In the revolutions of this island it has come under Division. the modern division into three provinces, Val Demona, which comprehends the north-eastern angle, Val de Mazzara which contains the western, and Val de Noto in which the southeasterly is situate. Over the island, as a part of the Neapolitan dominions, presides a Viceroy resident at Palermo, in Govern-
ment. quality of representative of the King of Naples; and when this substitute of regal authority is absent from Sicily, the bishop of Palermo acts as regent. The power of the monarch is much more limited here than in the kingdom of Naples. The imposition of taxes, and the forming of several regulations are lodged in a general assembly, or parliament, composed of three chambers. One chamber, called the *braccio ecclesiastico*, consists of sixty-six members, representatives of the church, who are archbishops, bishops, abbots, and priors. The *braccio militare*, or chamber of nobles, consists of fifty-eight princes, twenty-seven dukes, thirty-seven marquises, twenty-seven counts, one viscount, and seventy-nine barons, who represent the body of the nobility, many members of which have no seat in this assembly. The third chamber, or *braccio demanale*, is composed of forty-three representa-
tives

tives of royal towns, all of whom seem to be nominated by the influence of government. A committee composed of deputies, four from each chamber, is established for the transacting of public business; but the three first members of it are always the viceroy, the prince of Butera, and the prætor, or mayor, of Palermo.

How far the Sicilian parliament may be able to check the preponderant influence and prerogative of the crown seems not easily determinable, but a purely monarchical government might be more eligible than that mixture of monarchy and feudal aristocracy which is the established system of this unfortunate island, so favoured by nature, and so blasted by the narrow prejudices and malignant passions of man. Here every lord, in whatever degree of subjection he may be to the supreme power, is a petty monarch absolute in his own estate, nominating all the officers who hold places of trust or jurisdiction in his district: "civil and criminal law are both distributed by his creatures: the judges of the fief hear causes, condemn offenders, and then send the sentence for confirmation to the law agent, which every baron keeps in Palermo. If he approves of the sentence, it is executed without farther appeal *." The natural consequence of this tyrannic system is a most abject state of the Sicilian peasantry, who bear every symptom of misery amid the luxuriant productions of a most benign soil.

The King's Revenue arising from Sicily seems to be between two and three hundred thousand pounds

* Swinburne, vol. 2. sect. 29.

annually,

annually, and the army maintained in the island may consist of about eight or nine thousand men. The power of the monarch is nearly absolute over the church of Sicily; Roger, the first Earl, having been appointed by the Pope perpetual vicar of the apostolic see, and legate in the island; which office is retained to this day by his successors, in spite of all the efforts of the sovereign Pontiffs to recall it. All ecclesiastical benefices are in the King's donation. The hierarchy is composed of three archbishops and seven bishops. The court of ecclesiastical commission has been lately abolished. This tribunal however was by no means so formidable here as in Spain, it being the policy of the Sicilian barons to procure the assassination of such inquisitors as made themselves conspicuous by a zealous activity. The establishments for the promotion of literature are not very great; the only university in the island being that of Catania.

By what characteristics corporal or moral the Sicilians are distinguished from their neighbours of Italy we are not fully informed by travellers, nor would the difference probably be found great. Their language is a dialect of the Italian, deviating widely indeed, yet not near so much as the vulgar Neapolitan, from the Tuscan standard, and blended with German, Spanish, and some remains of the old vernacular tongue. The ladies commonly wear black veils, and the lower classes of men generally carry in bad weather dark furtouts with peaked hoods, which give them the appearance of so many friars.

The

The Sicilians appear to equal the gravest of the Italians in gravity of manner, and to be surpassed by none in acuteness of sensibility, or irritability of the nervous system; disorders being often occasioned, particularly among the lower sort, by the mere force of imagination. Marriages take place in early youth among the nobility: females being contracted before the age of eight or ten, and cohabiting with their husbands at thirteen or fourteen. Ciceronism is not as yet so universally established here as in the neighbouring peninsula, and almost as free an intercourse as in Britain between unmarried persons of the two sexes is allowed. At Palermo, Syracuse, and some other places, it is the custom to preserve the bodies of the dead in subterranean vaults as at Naples, and to set them upright like statues in niches; a custom condemned by some as disgusting, and commended by others as a mode of conveying lessons of humility †.

Sicilian
Isles.

Excepting the Liparean isles already noticed, few islands worthy of notice are found on the Sicilian coasts. The chief are the Aegades of the ancients at the western angle of Sicily, the most considerable one of which, called Maretimo, is not described by travellers, and has but a small extent of surface.

† Swinburne, vol. 2. sect. 28, 31, 33, 37, 47, 52, 62. De Non, p. 121, 122, 126, 135, 143. Brydone, vol. 2. let. 22, 25, 29.

THE MALTESE ISLANDS,

Lying above twenty leagues to the south of the south-eastern angle of Sicily, and containing according to some accounts fifty thousand, according to others a hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants, consist of Malta, Comino, and Gozzo, together with a fourth called Furfura, too inconsiderable to merit more than the mention of its name. They all are the supermarine summits of immense rocks which rise from the bottom of the Mediterranean. Gozzo, anciently named Gaulos, the most elevated of the three, and second in size, is little better than a naked rock, about eleven English miles long and five broad, yet made by industry to contribute well to population. Cumino, of the same nature with Gozzo, is not half so large, yet has a number of inhabitants, who procure a sustenance by laborious exertion.

Malta, the account of which, with respect to Malta. history, government, and inhabitants, comprehends the others, is by far the largest of these islands, being about twenty English miles long, twelve broad, and perhaps containing near a hundred thousand English acres. It is all a rock of very white freestone; precipitous and inaccessible on one side, but low and shelving on the other, and rising gradually within to a point near the center, which commands a view of the whole. The rock is covered with a thin shell of earth from about three to six inches deep. This earth is in many places fecund; the industrious

industrious Maltese importing soil from Sicily, and mixing it with pounded stone to form a covering where the rock is naked, or too thinly coated. The island is literally a garden, not a foot of ground being left untilled; yet the aspect of the country is rather unpleasing to the eye, because it is almost destitute of trees, and divided by walls of white stone into a multitude of small irregular inclosures. These walls not only serve to inclose the fields, but also to support the scanty soil, and preserve it from being carried away by the rains.

The rocky nature of this island contributes to render the heat intense, though from its little extent of surface in so wide a tract of sea, it might be expected to have a more moderate degree of temperature. Fruits, particularly oranges, which are said to be better here than in any other country, attain by a skilful management in this hot air an exquisite flavor; but cotton is the staple production, and furnishes matter of exportation to indemnify the expence of imported provisions; the island not yielding corn enough to maintain its inhabitants three months in the year. Three kinds of cotton plants are said to be here cultivated; one known since the times of antiquity to be a native of the country, yielding very white wool, and said by some to be an annual, by others a biennial plant; one from India, which furnishes the finest cotton, and which may be said to be quinquennial; and one which bears the yellow sort of which Nankeen is made. From the want of wood Malta suffers a scarcity of fuel; the dry dung of animals, thistles, and

and other weeds, being used for this purpose. This island is reckoned one among the many which have no venomous reptiles.

The towns of Malta, founded on a white rock, which forms a natural pavement for the streets, and built of white freestone, are clean and handsome. The island is said to contain seven cities, but only two have any size which can give pretension to such a title. The town which boasts the greatest antiquity of all in Malta, anciently called Melita, now the old city, stands in the most elevated part of the island, near the center, beautiful, but thinly inhabited. Near it are catacombs, reported to extend a vast way in the rock, and near it also is the bosquetta or grove, the only one in the island, at a villa of the grand master. The present capital of the island is the city of Malta, now commonly called Valetta, built mostly on a peninsula, which projects between two of the noblest harbours in the world. Of these that which lies on the south-east of the city, running two miles into the land, with a narrow entrance, and completely sheltered on all sides, is larger and more used than the other. The city of Malta is divided into three parts by channels of the sea; Valetta properly so called, the Burg, and the island of Saint Michael. The whole makes a most magnificent prospect toward the water; the rows of edifices rising like the seats of an amphitheatre, all remarkably well built, and appearing as if founded on vast and noble bastions.

This island, possessed successively by the Phœnicians, Grecians, Carthaginians, and Romans, remained,

maintained, after the dissolution of the Roman power, under the Greek empire of Constantinople. It was seized by the Saracens, and held by them till it was conquered by the Normans of Sicily in the eleventh century. It thenceforth followed the fortune of Sicily till the year 1530, when the Emperor Charles the fifth bestowed it to the Knights of Saint John of Jerusalem, who had been successively expelled by the Mohammedans from Syria, Cyprus, and Rhodes. Though by this donation Malta became an independent state, it was still to be considered as a fief of the Sicilian kingdom, and in token of homage the grand master sends every year a falcon to the King of Naples.

As this order of knighthood was instituted for the express purpose of incessant war, which it still continues to wage, against the Mohammedans, and as Malta was given to it to be made a bulwark against the Turks, the island is fortified to a degree no where else effected through so large a space. The capital is accounted impregnable, its fortifications being amazingly strong and very numerous, probably too numerous, as they would require in case of attack a vast number to man them, and each fortress, if taken, would serve as a lodgement to the enemy. The island is every where fortified by nature or art: immense excavations are made in the rock, and wherever the shore is accessible from the sea, batteries and other military works render the approach of an enemy extremely hazardous. Even the rock itself is converted into a peculiar species of artillery; holes being made in it in the
form

form of the bores of immense mortars, and charged with implements of destruction. In each of these cavities is lodged a barrel or more of gunpowder, over which is fitted a wooden lid, and on that is laid a heap of cannon-balls, or stones to the weight of four or five tons, ready to be discharged into the air, and to fall in a shower on a vessel attempting to gain the land. The forces of Malta consist of all the men in the island able to bear arms, and the navy commonly amounts to four or five ships of from sixty to thirty guns, together with some great gallies and smaller vessels.

The Knights of Saint John, or of Malta, unite ^{Govern-} by the nature of their institution the establishments ^{ment.} of monks and of soldiers, their order being at once military and religious, wedded to the profession of arms, and bound by vows of celibacy and chastity, vows which they consider as confined to celibacy only. The Knights are said to be in all about two thousand in number. They consisted of eight languages or nations until, by the defection of England from the Papal see, and the confiscation of the lands of all religious orders in that kingdom, they were reduced to seven. They still hold large estates in other countries which enable them to maintain their vast fortifications, and to support the charges of the perpetual hostilities in which they are engaged. Their government is an elective monarchy like that of the Papedom, limited in appearance, but absolute in fact. The grand master, who is the supreme magistrate, or monarch, of this very singular state, who holds his place for life, and

bears the title of Serene Highness and Eminence, might seem to have little more authority than that of presiding in the councils, and of giving two votes in each; but as he alone can propose the subject of discussion, and has the disposal of all places of profit, he commands these councils by his influence.

When the grand mastership of Malta becomes vacant, it must be supplied by election in three days. For this purpose each of the seven languages, or classes of knights, deputed three members. To the twenty-one thus appointed, three are added to represent England. All these, composing a committee of twenty-four, retire to a conclave, where they elect three persons, and afterward join to them thirteen others by ballot. These sixteen are the immediate electors, and make their determination by a plurality of suffrages.

Inhabi-
tants.

The Knights of Malta being natives of various European countries, the manners of their several nations are blended in their body; but the common people of the island are mostly of Arabian, or at least African descent, and retain some resemblance of the Orientals in lineaments, habit, and manners. They speak a dialect of the Arabic mixed with some words of other languages. They commonly go with the legs and feet bare, and use for their light dress large breeches or trowsers, a shirt of blue linen, and a broad sash. As they are under the government of knights natives of Europe, where ideas of chivalry have contributed much to meliorate the condition of the amiable sex, the females

males are freed from oriental confinement, and at the same time indulged with oriental ease; the men taking upon them every kind of labour, even the most trivial household work. Having been converted from the religion of Mohammed to that of the Romish church, the Maltese are zealous combatants against the Turks, and bigoted Catholics under the immediate superintendence of the bishop of Malta who resides among them*.

* For Malta, see De Non, p. 255—288. Brydone, vol. i. let. 14, 15. 16. vol. 2. let. 17. Dict. de l'Italie, tome 2. p. 15—17.

Even the latest writers concerning Malta take it for granted that this island was the place of Saint Paul's shipwreck, though, in a treatise published at Venice in 1730 by Ignatio Georgi a Benedictine, it is proved that not Malta, but Meleda, called also anciently Melita, on the coast of Dalmatia, was the scene of that accident; every circumstance disagreeing with the former and agreeing with the latter. I. The island in question was in the Adriatic sea. II. The wind Euroclydon, blowing from the south-east, would drive the ship toward the Dalmatian coast, not to Malta. III. The inhabitants of Malta, being at that time Greeks, could not be called Barbarians, but the term was fully applicable to the Dalmatians. IV. No quick sands are on the coast of Malta, many on that of Meleda. V. No vipers are in Malta, many and very malignant in Meleda. As to the banishment of serpents from the island by Saint Paul, the story has no foundation in scripture, and can be admitted by none but the grossest of the vulgar. Mr. Bryant also, in his *Observations and Enquiries relating to various parts of Ancient History*, published in 1767, has given a *Treatise on the wind Euroclydon*, and another on the *Shipwreck*, in which he agrees with the learned Benedictine.

T A B L E S O F I T A L Y,

K I N G D O M O F N A P L E S,

D I V I D E D I N T O T W E L V E P R O V I N C E S.

DIVISIONS.	Areas in English Acres.	POPULATION.	TOWNS.
Terra di Lavoro	1,930,000	1,210,000	Inhabitants.
			Naples - 360,000
			Capua - 5,000
Principato Citra	310,000	450,000	Puzzuoli - 10,000
			Salerno
			Amalfi - 4,000
Principato Ultra	920,000	256,000	Sorrento - 15,000
			Benevento
			Conza
Basilicata -	2,150,000	330,000	Ariano - 14,000
Capitanata -	1,500,000	350,000	Acerenza
County of Molfetta	620,000	150,000	Manfredonia - 6,000
			Foggia - 20,000
Terra di Bari	1,130,000	290,000	
			Bari - 16,700
			Trani
Terra di Otranto	1,790,000	300,000	Molfetta - 12,000
			Taranto
			Otranto
			Lecce - 14,000
			Brindisi - 10,000
Calabria Citra	2,100,000	320,000	Gallipoli - 6,000
			Cosenza
			Rossano - 6,000
Calabria Ultra	2,550,000	465,000	Cariati
			Reggio
			Catanzaro - 12,000
Abruzzo Citra	1,170,000	240,000	Tropea - 4,000
Abruzzo Ultra	1,710,000	350,000	Chieti
			Lanciano
			Aquila
			Teramo

T A B L E S

THE POPE'S DOMINIONS.

DIVISIONS.	TOWNS.	Inhabitants
Campagna di Roma	Rome Tivoli Fregene Albano	170,000
Patrimony of Saint Peter	Viterbo Civita Vecchio Bracciano Orvieto Aquapendente	10,000
Ombria or Spoleto	Spoleto Narni Terni Perugia	
Marc of Ancona	Ancona Loretto	6000
Duchy of Urbino	Urbino Pesaro Serravalle	
Romagna	Ravenna Rimini	15,000
Bolognese	Bologna	80,000
Ferrarese	Ferrara Comacina	15,000

TABLES OF ITALY.

THE GREAT DUKEDOM OF TUSCANY.

DIVISIONS.	TOWNS.	Inhabitants.
Florentino	Florence	70,000
Siennese	Sienna	17,000
Pisano	{ Pisa	15,000
	{ Livorno	45,000

STATE OF LUCCA.

Town.	Inhabitants.
{ Lucca	30,000

THE MODENESE.

Divisions.	Towns.	Inhabitants.
Dutchy of Modena	Modena	23,000
Mirandola Dutchy	Mirandola	17,000
Reggio Dutchy	{ Reggio	
	{ Borio	
	{ Carpi	

THE DUTCHY OF PARMA.

Divisions.	Towns.	Inhabitants.
Parmesan	Parma	10,000
Placentia Dutchy	Placentia	
Guastalla Dutcy	{ Guastalla	5000
	{ Castiglione	
	{ Luzara	

TABLES OF ITALY.

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DIVISIONS.	TOWNS.	Inhabitants.
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THE MANTUAN.

Mantua

THE VENETIAN TERRITORIES.

Divisions.	Towns.	Inhabitants.
Dogado	Venice - -	150,000
Paduano	Padua	
Vicentino	Vicenzo - -	35,000
Veronese	Verona - -	50,000
Bresciano	Brescia - -	60,000
Bergamasco	Bergamo - -	35,000
Cremaſco	Crema	
Poleſino di Rovigo	Rovigo	
Trevigiano	{ Treviso	
	{ Belluno	
Part of Friuli	Aquileia	

THE MILANESE.

Divisions.	Towns.	Inhabitants.
Milaneſe proper	Milan - -	140,000
The Pavetan	Pavia - -	27,000
Comaſco	Como - -	14,000
Lodeſan	Lodi - -	15,000
Cremonefe	Cremona - -	25,000
	Cafal Maggiore -	5000

TABLES

TERRITORIES OF THE KING OF SARDINIA.

DIVISIONS.		TOWNS.	
			Inhabitants.
Dutchy of Sa- voy.	Savoy proper	{ Chamberry	10,000
		{ Montmelian	
	Geneva County	Anneci	
	Chablais County	Tonon	
	Tarantaife	Mouftiers	
Princi- pality of Pied- mont.	Maurienne Valley	Saint Jean de Maurienne	
	Fossigny	Bonneville	
	Piedmont proper	{ Turin	
		{ Pignerol	
		{ Carignan	
	Vercelli Lordship	Vercelli	20,000
	Masseran Principality	Masseran	
	Ivrea Marquisate	Ivrea	
	Astesan	Asti	
	Suza Marquisate	Suza	
	Saluzza Marquisate	Saluzza	
Oneglia Principality, (in the Genoese Territories)	Vaudois	Coni	
	Nizza, or Nice, County	Pragelas	
	Tende County	Nizza	12,000
	Aoste County	Tende	
	Montferrat Dutchy	Aoste	
	Tortonese	Casal	
	Alessandrine	Tortona	
	Laumelline	Alessandria	12,000
		Valentia	
		{ Oneglia	

THE GENOESE TERRITORIES.

Divisions.	Towns.	Inhabitants.
	Genoa	
	Savona	
	Novi	6000
	Finale	
	Noli	
	Saint Remo	
	Ventimiglia	
	Rapallo	
	Lavagna	
	Spezzia	

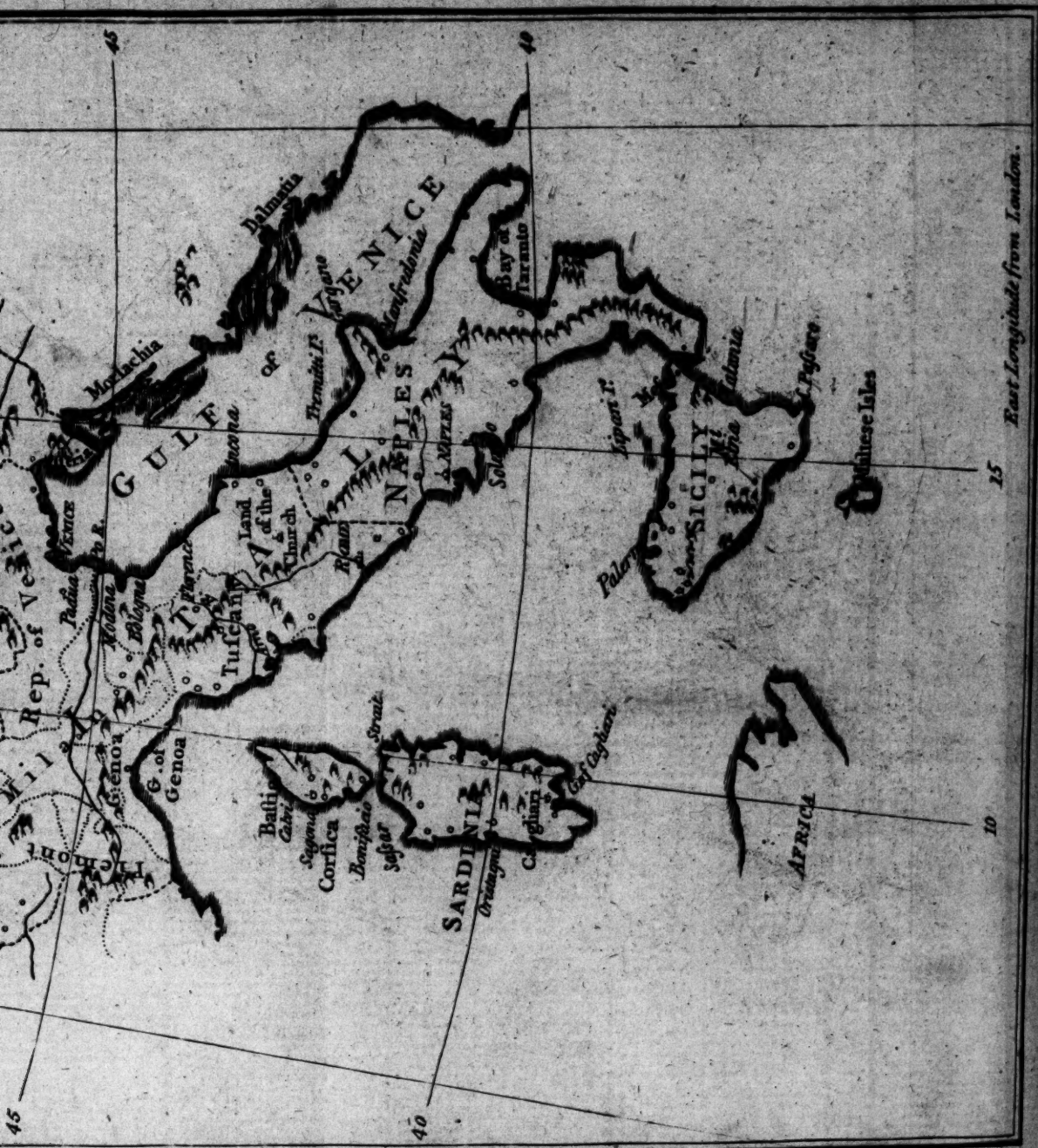
DIMINUTIVE STATES,

Divisions.	Towns.	Inhabitants.
	San Marino	5000
	Piombino	
	Massa Carrara	
	Monaco	
State of Prefidii	Orbitello	

TABLE OF SICILY.

		TOWNS.	Inhabitants.
Divided into the three Provinces of Val de Mona, Val de Mazzara, and Val de Noto.	Messina	-	30,000
	Palermo	-	120,000
	Aderne	-	10,000
	Centorbi	-	3000
	Leon forte	-	10,000
	Castro Giovanni	-	10,000
	Carini	-	4000
	Trapani	-	16,000
	Giuliano	-	6000
	Marfala	-	15,000
	Mazzara	-	6000
	Palma	-	6000
	Carlentini	-	3000
	Lentini	-	4000
	Paternò	-	8000
	La Favarota	-	2000
	Alcamo	-	8500
	Calatafimi	-	8000
	Castel Vetrano	-	12,000
	Memphrici	-	2500
	Sciacca	-	13,000
	Ribera	-	3800
	La Catholica	-	7000
	Siculiana	-	5000
	Girgenti	-	20,000
	Syracuse	-	18,000
	Catania	-	30,000





East Longitude from London.

G E R M A N Y.

GERMANY, understood in so large an ac- Site.
 ceptation as to include, beside its nine circles, the
 countries of Bohemia, Lusatia, Silesia, and Mora-
 via, is one of the most extensive regions of Europe,
 stretching from the confines of Switzerland, Italy,
 and the Adriatic, to the Baltic and the sea of Bri-
 tain, and from France and the Netherlands to Hun-
 gary and Poland. With exception of some tracts
 in the south-eastern parts, very small in proportion
 to the whole, which lean southward toward Italy,
 or eastward toward Hungary, the general plan of
 this great country declines irregularly to the north,
 from the Alps to the British and Baltic seas; all its
 waters being conveyed north-ward to these seas by
 the channels of its principal rivers, excepting those
 which are carried east-ward by the channel of the
 Danube, which river also itself, in its passage through
 Germany, receives much more numerous and longer
 streams from the southern than from the northern
 side; so that, abstracting from its protuberances,
 Germany might almost be considered as an inclin-
 ed plain shelving northward from the Alps, if the
 descent

descent were not so broken, and that more in proportion as the country extends to the east, as to make it rather consist of two inclined plains, the one declining from the Alps to the Danube, the other, which comprehends by far the greater part of Germany, from a ridge on the north of the Danube to the seas above-mentioned. In this ridge, which extends from the south-western angle of this large region in a winding course toward the east, and separates the waters of the Danube from those of all the other primary German rivers, are placed the chain of Suabian eminences called the Alb or Alp, the southern heights of Bohemia, and the mountains of the upper or southern Silesia.

General
face.

The most southern parts of Germany, which at the same time also lie toward the east, are uneven in the extreme; traversed by chains of the Italian Alps, and, in a large proportion, consisting of mountainous ranges of stupendous height, parted by long, narrow, deep, and winding vallies through which the waters find passage, mostly to the Danube, but some also to the rivers on the side of Italy. One of these vallies is that of Tyrol, along whose bottom flows the Inn the original stream of the Danube, and another is that of Saltzburg, through which the Saltza winds its way. These Alpine regions of southern Germany are inferior in elevation to the territories of Savoy and of the Swiss, but resemble them in their wild, irregular, and sublime scenery.

From the Alps to Cologne on one side, and Hanover on the other, the face of the country consists of plains

* Th
Riesbeck
Hanway

plains variously extended, some expanded very widely, intermixed with hills and mountains, generally shaded, all or in part, with wood, some standing alone, others so placed as to form ranges of various lengths. In the eastern side are found the widest plains and greatest chains of mountains. Bohemia is almost throughout a continued plain, varied with gentle undulations, and environed on all sides partly with mountains, and partly with ranges of wild hills covered with forests; but, excepting the north of Mecklenburg, which borders the Baltic, and is diversified with low hills, as also some small tracts of Pomerania similarly uneven, the north of Germany, from the northern mountains of Bohemia, eastward of the Elbe, to the Baltic, and from Hanover north-westward to the sea of Britain and northward to the Elbe, is a dead flat with scarcely any eminence which can be called a hill; consisting mostly of sand, but, in many parts, of sand, turf-bog, and mud, interspersed with lakes, and subject to the inundations of the great rivers. In these inundations the Weser is particularly formidable, laying the country for a vast extent under water*.

With exception of those parts of the great Italian Mountains which lie within the limits of the modern Germany, no mountains of this extensive country rise to any extraordinary elevation. A noted chain which runs from the Alps very far into Germany

* The face of the country is investigated from the Travels of Riefbeck, Moore, Milson, Keisler, Nugent, Born, Wraxall, Hanway, &c. also other writers, as Busching, &c.

is the Calenberg, the Mons Cetius of the ancient Romans, extending above 200 miles from the Save in Carniola to the vicinity of the Danube near Vienna †. Of the chains not immediately connected with the Alps by far the greatest is that of the Sudettes, which seems to form a concatenation with the Carpathian mountains near Jablunka in the south-east of Silesia, whence it extends in such a manner to the west and north as to separate Moravia from Silesia and Bohemia, and also Bohemia from Silesia; advancing to the frontiers of Lusatia near Friedberg on the river Queis, stretching in all above 300 miles, and, in the Silesian principality of Jauer, rising to its greatest height under the name of Riesengebirge, or Gigantic mountains, the most elevated peak of which, called Schneekoppe, or Riesenkoppe, is the highest of all Germany except the Alps, and yet seems hardly to have a greater elevation than Snowdon in South Britain, as it is covered with snow only during the greater part, not the whole, of the year ‡.

Of the chains which encircle Bohemia, the principal, next after the Sudettes, is the Bohmerwald, or Bohemian forest, which separates this kingdom from Bavaria, the upper Palatinate, Franconia, and Voigtland in upper Saxony §. Through Suabia run two chains of more note than elevation, which

† *Geographie de Busching*, tome 6. a la Haye, 1772, p. 527, 528.

‡ *Busching*, vol. 6. p. 10, 213, 214, 294, 295, 395. *Riefbeck's Travels*, vol. 1. p. 432.

§ *Busching*, tome 6. p. 125. *Born*. p. 209, 296. *Dublin*.

seems to be mutually connected, and which give source to several auxiliar streams of the Danube, particularly that which is commonly accounted its original stream; also to some influent branches of the Rhine, particularly the Necker. One of these chains, called the Black Forest, tends from south to north, partly between the Necker and the Rhine, rising on the western side with a steep acclivity, so as to appear to the inhabitants of Baden and Alsace of a considerable height, but declining slowly on the eastern ||. The other chain, called the Alb or Alp, much higher than the former, extends from west to east between the Necker and the Danube, rising with a steep ascent on the western and northern sides, but shelving insensibly southward toward the Danube, and eastward towards the river Brenz*; and seeming to stretch north-eastward, by its concatenations, between Franconia

|| In the Dublin edition of Riebeck's Travels 1787, p. 29. this note is inserted. "The Black forest is the largest wood of Germany, being sixty days journey in length and nine in breadth." According to this wise account its length, at 20 miles to a day's journey, must be 1200 miles; no trifling extent we must allow! Editors of books ought to be cautious whom they employ to make annotations. The ancient Hercynian forest, of which the Black forest is supposed to have been a part, (but a very small one) extended quite across Germany and far beyond its limits, being described as nine days journey broad, but of unknown length, though sixty days journey had been performed longitudinally in it. The Black forest is a chain of woody and inhabited mountains of no great extent. Busching, tome 8. a Stralbourg, 1774, p. 461, 462.

* Busching, tome 8. p. 462—464.

and Bavaria, to the mountains of Fichtelberg on the borders of Bohemia †. Another noted tract of German eminences is the Hartzian mountains, called also the Harz, or Hartz forest, which, with a breadth of 16 or 20 miles, extends about 50 miles in length, from the bailliage of Langelsheim, which belongs to the principality of Wolfenbüttele in Lower Saxony, to Hartzgerode in the principality of Anhalt in Upper Saxony; rising to its greatest height in the county of Wernigerode, in the mountain called Brocken, or the greater Blocksberg, the elevation of which, though it is probably the highest of the German mountains next after Sneekoppe, seems not much to exceed 1000 yards ‡.

Rivers.

Though the mountains of Germany are neither very high nor numerous in respect of the extent of its territory, they yet collect vapors in sufficient quantity for the supply of innumerable streams, which assemble their waters in the great channels of the Danube, the Rhine, the Weser, the Elbe, and the Oder, beside some which find a shorter passage to the sea by the Ems, and other rivers of less magnitude. Most of the large German rivers flow along so even beds, and with such a depth of water, as to give to the country the advantages of inland navigation in a more than ordinary degree. Some smaller streams descending from mountainous tracts from cataracts, of which the greatest and most extraordinary, so far as my information extends,

† Riefbeck's Travels in Germany, vol. 1. p. 33. Dublin, 1787.

‡ Busching, tome 10 a la Haye 1777, p. 252, 505, 506.

is in Salzburg, where on a rock 100 feet in perpendicular altitude a stream is precipitated from a vast height, and recoils from the rock so strongly in an arch, that travellers, who pass along a road under this arch at the foot of the rock, are not in the least incommoded by the water §.

The Rhine, which washes this country on the western side through the greater part of its length from south to north, and the Danube, which crosses it almost entirely from west to east, have already been mentioned in the general view. The chief subsidiary river of the Rhine on the side of Germany is the Maine, whose turbid and muddy waters it receives at the city of Mentz, after a serpentine course of above 300 miles, and whose two original component streams, called the Red and White Maine, spring from the mountains of Fichtelberg in Franconia on the borders of Bohemia ||. The Weser, anciently called Visurgis, which, from its prime fountain in Hildbourghausen in the principality of Cobourg in Upper Saxony, to its influx into the sea of Britain, seems to wind through a course of above 450 miles, and receives into its channel, among other considerable streams, the Aller, admits not ships of burden with their cargoes even so high as Bremen, which is not quite 50 miles from the sea, such vessels being obliged to disburden at Brake or Elsfleth about 15 miles lower*.

§ Riefbeck, vol. 1. p. 141.

|| Busching, tome 6. p. 15. and tome 9. a la Haye, 1776, p. 172.

* Busching. tome 6. p. 17, 18. tome 10. p. 35.

The Elbe, the Albis of the Romans, by far the greatest of all the Rivers which derive all their waters from German sources, has its original fountain in the Riesingsberge mountains, which are the highest part of the Sudettes, whence it enters Bohemia, and proceeding northward enters the sea of Britain, performing a course of above 700 miles, affected by the tide more than 80 miles from its mouth, dividing so as to form many small islands above and at Hamburg, navigable by ships of burden as high as that city above 60 miles from the sea, and navigable by boats to Leitmeritz in Bohemia above 340 miles higher †. The Oder, anciently denominated Suerus and Viadrus, draws its original waters from the Sudettes, where they border the Moravian district of Olmütz, and after a course of near 600 miles discharges its flood into the Baltic, dividing and spreading at its mouth so as to form two large islands, receiving into its channel at Custrin the great river Warta from Poland, and admitting navigation through a length of near 500 miles from Ratibor in Silesia to its mouth, but abounding at the same time in banks of sand which are very incommodious to those who navigate its stream ‡.

The advantages of inland navigation afforded by the German rivers are in some places farther extended by the means of canals, particularly in the Marche of Brandenburg, where, by the parental

† Busching, tome 6. p. 15—17, 127.

‡ Busching, tome 6. p. 17. tome 10. p. 89, 90.

care of the Kings of Prussia, communications of this kind are formed between the Elbe, the Oder, and some lakes which are found in those parts. Germany contains no lake of a magnitude near so considerable as that of Constance, which forms part of its boundary on the side of Switzerland; but many of various sizes, however inferior to this, are seen scattered in the hilly territories of the south, as Upper Austria and Bavaria §, and in the low tracts of the north, particularly Mecklenburg and the neighbouring parts. The German lakes the most worthy of notice happen not to be the most extensive in respect of magnitude. In this number are two in the county of Mansfeld in Upper Saxony, which, though they have a communication by a short intermediate channel, are yet totally different in their nature; the water of the greater being salt, that of the smaller fresh or sweet ||.

The most extraordinary of the German lakes is that of Cirknitz, or Czernic, in Carniola, which may be 7 or 8 miles long, half as much broad, and above 24 feet deep, exclusively of certain pits at its bottom, containing three fine islands, and situate in the midst of a circle of wild steep mountains,

The Cirknitzer
see.

§ Mr. Nugent in his German Tour (vol. 2. p. 49. Dublin, 1768) reckons Bavaria among the parts of Germany which contain few or no lakes; but Dr. Busching a native of Germany, who describes his country amply, though not so clearly and satisfactorily as we might wish, in six octavo volumes of from six to eight hundred pages each, attributes to Bavaria 16 larger and 160 smaller lakes. tome 9. a la Haye, 1776. p. 32.

|| Busching, tome 10. p. 220.

in

in a country abounding in caverns, and in rills of water, which, after a greater or less length of course sink into the earth, and never again appear. The caverns and subterraneous receptacles around, if their dimensions, figures, and positions were known, would doubtless account for the strange phenomena from which this lake has obtained its celebrity. In times of great dryness of the air and earth the waters disappear, subsiding, commonly in the space of 25 days, through holes or pits in the bottom, the number of which is in all 18, and leaving the bed of the lake quite dry, excepting that two of the holes, which are never quite empty, retain some puddle or miry water. With rains and storms the waters return, springing from holes in the bottom with more or less force according to circumstances. In times of violent thunder it has been known to spout with such vehemence as to fill the lake in 24 or even 18 hours.

In general the waters of this lake retire in June or July, and return in Autumn; but sometimes they have retreated only once in three, or even five, years; sometimes no less than two or three times in one year; and sometimes the desiccation has taken place in remarkably dry winters. When the water subsides, considerable quantities of fish are taken, the more in proportion to the length of time during which the lake has continued full. When the evacuation happens early in the year, the bed of the lake is cultivated and sown with millet, the grass, which vegetates very rapidly, being previously mown and removed; but sometimes the reflux takes place

before

before the millet is reaped, so that the whole crop is lost. What seems most extraordinary in the authentic accounts of this lake is, that, from two holes above six feet in diameter, situate on the southern side of the lake, and above its level, the water, in the raging of autumnal tempests, spouts with a frightful noise to the distance of eighteen or twenty-four feet, carrying with it sometimes young wild-ducks alive and very fat, but blind, which in about fifteen days attain their sight and a thick plumage. From this may be inferred the existence and near position of a great subterraneous lake, which has such a communication with the air above as to be agitated with storms, but destitute of light *.

Germany, perhaps from its position with respect to the Alps, abounds in springs variously impregnated. So great a number of warm baths and mineral waters have been discovered in this country, and proved by long experience to be possessed of medicinal qualities, that in this respect it can hardly be rivalled. Among these are the celebrated waters of Spa in the Westphalian territory of Liege. The town of Spa stands on the banks of a rapid rivulet, at the extremity of a winding valley, well sheltered on the north by an adjoining hill, and elsewhere by a ridge of mountains, which incircle it at the distance of from one mile to two miles and a half, running from south-east quite round to north-west, and rising twelve hundred feet in altitude above

* Busching, tome 7. p. 55—58.

the Pouhon spring in the center of the town. This is the principal of the springs which belong to Spa. The rest lie at the distance of above a mile from the town †.

The imperial city of Aken or Aix-la-Chapelle, famous among the ancients as well as moderns for the salubrity of its waters, stands in Westphalia in an open plain, with some hills around it of various height at a moderate distance. Vast quantities of water perpetually flow from springs within and around the city, disagreeable to the smell and taste, impregnated with sulphur, and of various degrees of temperature. Numerous accommodations are furnished for drinking and bathing. Vapor baths also are prepared for those who require them. In the principal well, called Cæsar's or the Emperor's bath, which is almost in the center of the city in a declining situation, the water which is raised by conducting pipes from near the bottom, causes Fahrenheit's thermometer to ascend to 136 degrees †. Still hotter than this are the waters of Wary or Carlsbad in Bohemia, which raise the thermometer to 156 degrees §.

To enumerate all the fountains in the different parts of Germany applied to the renovation of health in the human frame, the greater part of which are in the Austrian dominions, is unnecessary. The waters of Pyrmont in Westphalia are exported as a sanative drink even to America. Those of Abach

† Ash on mineral waters, London 1788, p. 168.

‡ Idem, p. 300—309.

§ Idem, p. 326, 327.

in Bavaria on a bank of the Danube have an odor like that of rotten eggs: and those of Nieder-selters in the circle of the Lower Rhine, can bear, as it is said, to be transported to India, and re-transported to Europe, without any perceptible diminution of their medicinal virtue ||.

The air of Germany, as of other countries, varies much more by the diversity of elevation and exposure, and the nature of the soil, than by the difference of latitude. In the state of its atmosphere and seasons this country in general resembles Britain, excepting that its air is drier, its weather less inconstant, and the heat of its summer and cold of its winter approach nearer the extreme. In the latter season the earth is covered with snow during three or four months with little interruption, and the rivers commonly so frozen as to bear loaded carriages. That the summer is hotter than that of Britain, seems to be evinced by the maturation of the German grape which yields good wine.

The soil of this extensive country varies very much in its natural fertility, and improvement by culture, and somewhat also in the species of its productions. The southern parts, with exception of the Alpine territories, are much more fertile than the northern. Among those which claim the pre-eminence are Suabia and some other territories which border the Rhine. Among the most sterile are the dominions of Hanover between the Weser and the Elbe, where sand-heaths abound, which

|| Busching, vol. 8. p. 70.

scarcely

scarcely admit any species of culture. Maize, millet, wheat, and other kinds of European corn, are produced in quantities, which notwithstanding the deficiencies of some territories, seem at least sufficient, on the whole amount, for internal consumption, with a part also to spare for exportation. The divisions of the country which abound most in corn, are the two Saxonies, Holstein, Mecklenburg, Pomerania, and Bavaria. The culture of flax and hemp is very advantageous to the country in general, but meets chiefly with attention in Lower Saxony, Westphalia, and Silesia. The quantity of these articles exported from Westphalia alone, in a raw state or otherwise, is said to be in value at least 700,000 pounds yearly. Hops and tobacco are much cultivated, particularly the latter, of which the territory of Bayreuth alone in Franconia exports annually about 50,000 hundred-weight, and the Palatinate so much as amounts to about the value of 100,000 British pounds. Fruits grow in quantities somewhat considerable in several parts of the country, particularly the southern. Apples are an article of commerce in some places, particularly at Leipzick in Upper Saxony; and some other fruits in some other places; thus, for instance, at Lankheim, a small village in the circle of the Rhine, dried plumbs are sold in some years to the value of 6000 pounds. The vine is found to flourish throughout more than half of Germany, but where its juice is most valuable, are the circles of Suabia and the Rhine. The wines of these countries are commonly called Rhenish. The name of old Hock

properly

properly belongs to that which is made on a hill near Mentz where the village of Hocheim stands. The best sort of this wine, which is also the best in Germany, is said to be quite a perfume without the least tincture of acidity. This is made in a territory called Rhinegau in the Electorate of Mentz on the northern bank of the Rhine, particularly at the village of Rudesheim. The woods and forests, which are numerous in this extensive country, furnish great quantities of timber for fewel and other purposes; but in some parts wood is not so plenty as to constitute the fewel, and the defect is in this case supplied, in the northern parts with turf, and in others with fossil coal*.

Germany abounds in pasturage and in cattle. It *Animals,* exports large numbers of horses, chiefly to France. Some of an extraordinary size and price are bred in the rich meadows of East-Friesland and other low-marshy tracts of the north. In the same tracts are made considerable quantities of butter and cheese, and neat cattle grow to a surprizing bulk. Sheep are in general numerous in this extensive country, particularly the middle and northern parts, and the wool of Saxony is said to be hardly inferior to that of South-Britain. Animals of the deer-kind, wild boars, and other objects of the chace, are far more numerous than is consistent with the real interest of the community, preserved by a barbarous spirit of hunting which possesses the princes and nobles of

* For the products of Germany, see Zimmermann, also Buching, vol. 6, and seq. Riesbeck, &c.

this,

this, as of some other countries. The wild tracts of mountains and forests contain some of the more noxious tribes of bears, wolves, lynxes, and other predaceous animals, the skins of which enter into commerce, and make in some small proportion amends for the mischief done by them while alive.

Fossils.

That in which the Germans surpass all other nations is the art of mining, to which their cool and persevering genius is peculiarly adapted. The spirit of this species of industry is most conspicuous in the inhabitants of the Saxon electorate, who have in a considerable degree excavated the mountains which separate their country from Bohemia. The quantities of lead and iron raised in Germany are prodigious, not less than 50,000 tuns of the latter being annually furnished by that part of Austria, which contains the provinces of Stiria, Carinthia, and Carniola, famous among other metals, for their excellent steel. These same provinces, called by the German geographers Interior Austria, yield about 300,000 pounds weight of quick-silver in the year; and of the same substance the district of Deuxponts in the Palatinate furnishes about 50,000. Copper, tin, cobalt, zinc, vitriol, sulphur, saltpetre, and other minerals, are the produce of various mines. The tin is chiefly raised in Bohemia and Misnia. Small quantities of gold are found, and much greater quantities of silver. The latter has been drawn from the Saxon mines to the annual value of more than 100,000 British pounds. From the same mines is taken, to the amount of nearly the same value, the famous Saxon cobalt, which is used chiefly in

in making the blue color called smalte. The value of the silver yielded by the Hartzian mountains seems not greatly inferior to this, and the amount of all the minerals procured from these mountains appears to be more than double that estimate. Fossil coal is found in Silesia, Westphalia, and Hesse, and might perhaps be procured in great quantities if the attention of the inhabitants were directed that way, as we find that above 40,000 pounds worth are annually exported from the small territory of Liege. Springs of brine, or salt-water, abound more in Germany than in any other country of Europe, and its salt-works are supposed to be the greatest in the world. The best or purest salt is that of Lunenburg in the Hanoverian dominions. In the mountainous tracts of the south are vast masses of fossil salt, and the quantities manufactured in the territory of Saltzburg in Bavaria are prodigious, many thousand tons† being every year made at the single town of Hallein from the mines of the neighbouring mountain of Durnberg. The manner of working is to form excavations in what is called the salt rock, to fill these with fresh-water, and, when that has remained so long as to be sufficiently impregnated, to convey it to the furnaces, where it is boiled until all but the salt evaporates‡.

Almost all kinds of manufactures which can be named are objects of German industry, and many

Manufac-
tures.

† Zimmermann (Political Survey of Europe, p. 88. Dublin 1788.) says, 750,000 lb. ; but Busching, (tome 9. p. 18) says, 750,000 quintals.

‡ Busching, vol. 9. p. 7. Rieselbeck, vol. 1. p. 137, 138.

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are carried to a high stage of improvement. An instance is given with respect to wire, which in Austria is said to be drawn into so slender a form that 6130 fish-hooks are made out of half an ounce of iron §. Yet the German manufacturers are accounted inferior to those of South-Britain in woollen-cloth, hardware, and articles of luxury. Great quantities of linen-cloth are made, particularly in Silesia and Carniola; but the manufacture in which the Germans seem to surpass all the other nations of Europe, is that of porcelain, which, from excellent kinds of clay found in the two Saxones, Hesse, and the Palatinate, is fabricated at Dresden, Berlin, Furstenberg, and other places, in a manner no where equalled excepting in Japan and China ||.

Com-
merce.

Among the exports of Germany are timber, flax, hemp, corn, wine, horses, wild boars, hams, various minerals, medicinal waters, porcelain, and a great variety of other manufactured goods, among which are military stores, such as great guns, bombs, and mortars. A considerable part of the interior commerce is managed at the fairs of Leipzick, Brunswick, Frankfurt on the Oder, and Frankfurt on the Maine. The chief emporiums of exterior traffic are the Imperial cities of Hamburg, Lubeck, Bremen, and Frankfurt on the Maine*; to which perhaps may be added the Prussian port of Stetin,

§ Zimmermann, p. 130.

|| Some say that the German porcelain is better than that of China, but this seems by no means a decided point.

* Zimmermann, p. 91.

and

and the Austrian of Trieste. The three former were principals in the great Hanseatic league, which once engrossed almost all the commerce of Northern Europe. It cannot be an easy matter to determine whether the balance of trade be, on the whole amount, in favour of Germany, or against it; but we can hardly doubt that its commerce, taken in a collective sense, is rather passive than active, the greater part of its exports and imports being carried in foreign vessels. The division of the country into many states is prejudicial to its trade, each community considering its private interest as quite distinct from that of the whole, and too often putting obstacles in the way of its neighbours commerce †.

This great country stretches from south to north Area. through a length of more than 600 English, or above 470 Irish miles, and from west to east with a breadth, where widest, of near 540 of the former kind, or above 420 of the latter. By a diagonal mensuration its dimensions may be made still greater, but its mean length and breadth, especially the latter, are considerably less, and its area seems hardly to contain much more than 160 millions of English or 98 millions of Irish acres; perhaps it may not comprehend altogether so much. The inhabitants ^{Popula-} of this extensive space, probably amounting in num-^{tion.} ber to 26 millions, occupy near 4000 cities, towns, or burgs, and above 60,000 villages †, besides solitary houses, distributed, in general, without any

† Zimmermann, p. 92. Riefbeck, vol. 2. p. 409.

† Busching, tome 6. p. 24.

Aspect.

very striking inequality, though some parts are considerably more populous than others. The sterile tracts of the Hanoverian dominions between the Weser and the Elbe are among the most thinly inhabited; but neither is the population elsewhere proportionate to the fertility; thus the Electorate of Bavaria though not less rich in soil than that of Saxony, is far less furnished with inhabitants, and is also greatly surpassed in this respect by the circle of the Upper Rhine, which is one of the most populous, and at the same time, most fertile divisions of all Germany §. The country is in its general aspect of a level nature; rich towards the south and the banks of the Rhine; sandy and barren in many places toward the north, interspersed with woods; quite open, or with scarcely any enclosures, except those which environ the parks or gardens of princes; and, with a few exceptions, quite undorned with villas, or rural mansions of any intermediate order between the palaces of the princes and the cottages of the peasants; the gentry dwelling in a state of dependance about courts, and the people of trade constantly residing in towns ||.

Towns.

These towns are extremely numerous, and, though no one of them can in strict propriety of speech be stiled the capital of Germany, nor is the greatest at all to be compared to London or Paris in point of population, yet a very large number are of considerable magnitude, and so many, both large and small, are fortified, that no other country perhaps

§ Riefbeck. Zimmermann, p. 81.

|| Moore, vol. 1. p. 266. vol. 2. p. 55, 77.

can boast of so many strong holds of this nature. Their walls, towers, and other works give them rather a gloomy and dismal appearance. The propensity however to environ large cities with formidable bulwarks seems to prevail much less at present than formerly, and, as in Europe a spirit of humanity mitigates the fierceness of war to a degree elsewhere unknown, it may perhaps be in general, but not in all cases, better policy to maintain only such places of strength as are defensible by small garrisons, and to leave extensive towns unfortified; for, since bombardment has come into practice, fortifications have been often found to contribute rather to the damage than the security of such. Of the multitude of towns of various magnitude, which are scattered over the face of this extensive region, the few following may suffice to be noticed in this place.

On the eastern bank of the river Muer, whose Gratz waters run to the Drave, and are thereby conveyed to the Danube, stands Gratz, the capital of Stiria, and, both in respect of magnitude and beauty, the third of all the German cities under the Austrian dominion, inhabited by about 35,000 souls; separated from its chief suburb by the river, over which is a bridge; strongly fortified, and overlooked by a castle built in form of a citadel on a high rock, partly within the city, which commands the town and neighbouring country*.

* Busching, tome 7. p. 12—14. Zimmermann, p. 128. Riesbeck. vol. 1. p. 365.

Vienna.

The capital of the Austrian dominions, and the greatest of all the German cities, is Vienna, called Wien by the Germans, and commonly also considered as the capital of Germany. Built mostly of stone, in a country which is level toward the north and east, but elevated toward the south and west with mountains and hills cloathed with forests and vineyards, it is nobly situate at the influx of the small river Wien, on the southern bank of the Danube, at a place where that great river spreads, and divides into several channels, so as to form many wooded islands. That which is properly called the city is of no great extent; the strong fortifications with which it is enclosed, being hardly three English miles in circuit. Within this compass, the streets, about 80 in number, are narrow, crooked, and dirty; the houses flat-roofed, from four to seven stories high, with two or three stories of cellars underneath. As the second and fourth floors of all the houses, except those of the gentry, within the walls, belong to the court, and are given to persons employed by the government, and as near a sixth part of the area thus enclosed is occupied by churches and convents, the inhabitants are greatly crowded, and house-rent is excessively high.

People of easy fortunes, though they have houses in the city, generally spend the summer in the suburbs, which are much more pleasant and vastly larger, built irregularly with gardens intermixed, and surrounding the city in a singular manner, but a manner which contributes to the health of the inhabitants and the beauty of the view; a clear space
of

of 600 yards in breadth being left between the fortifications and the suburbs all around, so that the latter inclose a great circular field with the city in the center. Of the suburbs the greatest is that of Leopold, built on an island of the Danube, and subject to be incommoded by the inundations of that river.

The exterior circuit of the suburbs can hardly be less than 16 or 17 miles, and the number of inhabitants contained within that space, which has been variously rated by different writers, and which consists, in some part, of a variety of nations, among whom are Turks and Greeks, probably amounts to between three and four hundred thousand. Of 15 squares, or places, within the city, only three make any considerable figure, and of the rest the largest and handsomest is that of the court, which serves as a public walk to the citizens, who have also another public walk without the city, in a place called the Imperial Park or Prater, which is a wood of oaks and beeches in an island of the Danube. Among the public edifices is the metropolitan church of Saint Stephen, a dark, gloomy, Gothic structure of hewn stone, situate within the city, and supposed to have the most lofty steeple in Germany, the height thereof being about 450 feet. The imperial library, also within the city, is remarkable for its vast collection of books, the number of volumes contained in it being said to be above 80,000. Such is the number of charitable foundations in the city and suburbs, that no less than 9000 poor and sick persons are said to be maintained in them ;

3000 of whom are supposed to be supported by one foundation alone, called the Citizens Hospital. To the sovereign family of Austria belong several palaces, particularly one in the city stiled the Imperial Palace, a great old black mass of stone-work, seven stories high, without beauty or stateliness; and some in the neighbouring country, the most beautiful of which is said to be that of Schonbrunn, situate in a marshy valley on the river Wien, at the distance of three miles from Vienna *, an immense fabric built in a truly great stile.

Prague.

Of the cities of Germany subject to the Austrian government the second in greatness is Prague, agreeably seated, near the center of Bohemia of which it is the capital, in a hollow surrounded on all sides with hills, and on both sides of a great auxiliary stream of the Elbe called the Moldaw, over which is built, in order to connect the two parts of the town, a great, but far from handsome, bridge of hewn stone, near 600 yards long, above 10 broad, supported by eighteen arches, and adorned with a great number of brazen images of saints. This large city, rising in the manner of an amphitheatre, bears many marks of former splendor, and still more striking symptoms of present decay. With a circuit of 12 miles it has but about 80,000 inhabitants, of whom 10,000 are Jews. Its houses are in general built of stone, and three stories high. Its fortifications are of vast extent, inclosing all the

* For Vienna, see Busching, tome 6. p. 570—582. Moore, vol. 2. let. 82. Riefbeck, vol. 1. p. 203—209, 285, 291.

nearest

nearest eminences which command the town, and requiring not less than a whole army for a garrison †. The royal castle is a great irregular building on a hill which commands a prospect of the city and of the country around.

One of the most beautiful, if not of the largest, Dresden. cities of Germany is Dresden, the capital of the Saxon electorate, most agreeably situate in a fine plain, surrounded at the distance of two leagues with hills which are planted with vines, and divided by the river Elbe into two parts called the old and new town, which are connected by a most magnificent and beautiful bridge of hewn stone, broader than that of Prague, its breadth being 36 feet, but not so long, its length being only 540 feet, and supported by eighteen arches. Dresden is well fortified, and seems to contain about 70,000 inhabitants. The streets, particularly of the new town, are wide and regular; the houses handsome, and generally of the same height. Several of these deserve the name of palaces. The palace of the Elector is one of the most magnificent in Europe, and the cabinets of curiosities, which belong to this prince, are said to be surpassed by none †.

In a pleasant level country in Lower Saxony, on Magde-
the western bank of the Elbe, stands Magdeburg, ^{burg.}
divided by several channels of the river, over which
channels are many bridges, a well built city, con-

† Busching, tome 6. p. 153—156. Moore, vol. 2. let. 81.
Piozzi. p. 540—542. Riesbeck, vol. 1. p. 421, 422.

‡ Busching, tome 9, p. 428—433. Moore, vol. 2. let. 79.
Piozzi, p. 574. Pococke's Journey to the East, vol. 3. p. 233.

taining about 26,000 inhabitants, capital of a dutchy of the same appellation, a place of great traffic, the third in respect of magnitude among those German towns which acknowledge subjection to the Prussian dominion, and bearing the first rank with respect to strength; its fortifications being of extraordinary force, particularly a citadel built in an island of the Elbe §.

Breslaw. Breslaw, the capital of Silesia, situate on the south-western bank of the Oder, at the influx of the Olav, furnished with fortifications of no great strength; occupying an area of eight miles in circuit, inhabited by above 50,000 souls, and containing several large and regular squares, some good public edifices, and many handsome private houses, is chiefly remarkable for being, in respect of greatness, the second of the German cities under the Prussian government, and the third among all which belong to that monarchy ||.

Berlin. The capital of all the Prussian dominions is Berlin, in the middle Marche of Brandenburg in Upper Saxony, situate in a sandy flat country, on three channels into which the river Spree divides itself in its course to the Havel. Berlin, which in fact consists of five towns connected in such manner as to constitute one, is surpassed in beauty by very few cities in the world, and probably in salubrity by none. Some very magnificent buildings contribute to its ornament. The houses, in general but one or two stories high, are built of a fine kind

§ Busching, tome 10. p. 323—328.

|| Busching, tome 6. p. 262—267.

of white freestone, almost all separate one from another, and have a neat and handsome appearance. The streets are regular, of a commodious breadth, and, particularly in the new town called Fredericstadt, quite straight. Many of them are also of a great length. That which bears the name of Frederic-street extends above two English miles, and others which run from this at right angles, are a mile, or even a mile and half long. Berlin enjoys one of the finest public walks in the world, which extends through a circuit of above three miles on the southern side of the Spree, and commands through a part of it a view of that river. This beautiful city, many of whose inhabitants are of French extraction, their ancestors having been driven by religious persecutions from their native country, has been called the Paris of Germany, but is far inferior in population to that great French city, the number of its inhabitants being about 140,000, though its circumference is near ten English miles. Its fortifications, if they deserve that name, consisting chiefly of a wall on the southern side of the Spree, and of palisados on the northern, afford but little security against the attacks of a hostile army*.

In Berlin is a magnificent palace of the King of ^{Potsdam.} Prussia, and in its neighbourhood are some others, particularly two at Potsdam, a town twelve miles west from Berlin, which by late additions is be-

* Busching tome 9. p. 669—686 Moore, vol. 2. let. 78. Piozzi, p. 554—556. Rielbeck, vol. 2. p. 186. 188.

come so considerable as to contain about 20,000 inhabitants. Potsdam is by nature a place of strength, situate in an island ten miles in circuit formed by the river Havel, which conveys in its channel the waters of the Spree and other rivers to the Elbe. The town consists of three parts, one of which, called the old town, is, by means of a canal which separates it from the rest, rendered an island in itself. Potsdam is a beautiful town, its houses resembling those of Berlin, but built and disposed with more taste and magnificence. In the old town stands the castle or old palace, which is a noble fabric; but the new palace of Sans Souci, built by the late glorious monarch Frederic the Second, is situate on an eminence quite without the town, and at some small distance from it. This is a very splendid pile, decorated with groups of statues in the front, and connected with its office-houses, which are at a considerable distance, by a double colonnade, which has a grand effect †.

Hamburg. At the distance of above sixty English miles from the sea of Britain, on the north-eastern margin of the Elbe, where that great river, expanding to the breadth of four or five miles, incloses several islands, and at the influx of the rivers Alster and Bille, stands the great imperial and commercial city of Hamburg, built in a low situation and subject to be somewhat damaged by inundations; with a circuit of about six miles; a population of above

† Busching, tome 9. p. 632—638. Moore, vol. 2. let. 72, 73. Piozzi. p. 567—571.

100,000; houses generally high, built of brick, and with a better appearance within than on the outside; streets, with some exceptions, irregular, crooked, and rather narrow; canals running quite through the town, and filled regularly with the tide; bridges over the canals no less than 84 in number; strong fortifications in the old Dutch stile, consisting of great ditches and walls of such thickness, that on the ramparts, which are planted with rows of trees, several carriages can drive abreast; a kind of lake for pleasure-boats formed by the Alster within the fortifications; and near it a public walk for the citizens, called the Jungfernstieg, planted with trees †.

On a component stream of the Weser called the Hanover. Leyne, in an agreeable level country in Lower Saxony, stands Hanover, a city of no very considerable size, and not fit to be ranked among the great German towns, but worthy of notice as being the capital of the Hanoverian dominions, and as bearing more than any other in Germany the air of an English town. It is a neat, thriving, and agreeable city; containing near 20,000 souls; regularly fortified, but of no great strength, and divided by the Leyne into two parts called the old and new town. A magnificent avenue conducts from the city to the electoral palace of Harnhausen, in the fine gardens of which is a rural theatre for the acting of plays in the open air, and artificial fountains, one of which is reckoned among the best contrived of the

† Busching, tome II. p. 146—166. Nugent, vol. I. p. 48.
Riesbeck, vol. 2. p. 212—214.

kind, spouting the water, when set in play, to the height of 70 feet §.

Cologne.

The imperial city of Cologne, built in form of a crescent on the western side of the Rhine, appearing magnificent at a distance, but otherwise within, and surrounded with fortifications of but little strength, is remarkable chiefly for its antiquity, it having been a Roman colony, and for its extent, its circuit being nine miles; but it is extremely ill inhabited, its population amounting only to 25,000, and is gradually falling into ruin ||.

Frankfurt
on the
Maine.

The imperial city of Frankfurt on the Maine, distinguished by its epithet from a town of the same denomination on the Oder, is commercial, populous, rich, and handsome, divided by the river Maine, over which is a bridge, into two parts, of which the southern, called Saxenhausen, is by far the smaller. Frankfurt is about five miles in circuit, and contains near 70,000 inhabitants, or, according to other accounts, 36,000. Its houses are stately, clean, and commodious; built of brick, or covered on the outside with a kind of red stucco. Its principal streets are spacious and of a good appearance, but the rest are narrow. It is defended by a double ditch filled with water, a rampart with bastions, and other fortifications*.

§ Busching, tome 10. p. 552—555. Moore, vol. 2. let. 59, Piozzi, p. 575—577.

|| Busching, tome 7. p. 639—641. Riefbeck, vol. 2. p. 389—391, 405.

* Busching, tome 8. p. 441—452. Moore, vol. 1. let. 46.

Nuremburg,

Nuremburg, also an imperial city, one of the ^{Nurem-}handfomest, but none of the best peopled towns of ^{burg.} Germany, stands in a plain in Franconia, and is divided by an auxiliar branch of the Maine, called the Pegnitz, into two parts, which communicate by six bridges of stone, beside others of wood. This city, renowned for the skill and industry of its artificers in works of ivory, wood, metals, and other materials, is about five miles in circuit, surrounded with a deep ditch, and a double wall flanked with towers in the old fashioned manner, and contains about 8000 houses, mostly high, and large, built of stone, but so ill supplied with inhabitants, many of them being quite unoccupied, that probably all the souls dwelling within the limits of the town exceeds not 50,000 †.

Ratisbon, an imperial city of Bavaria, of considerable size, but of a dark and dull appearance, ^{Ratisbon.} peopled with about 22,000 souls, furnished with some fortifications, and situate on the southern bank of the Danube a little above the influx of the Regen, is remarkable, among other circumstances, for its ancient bridge over the Danube, a bridge of 15 arches, of prodigious strength, and the greatest perhaps in Germany excepting those of Prague and Dresden; its length being 350 yards and its breadth eight †.

Between the rivers Lech and Wertach, which ^{Augf.} unite in its environs, and flow to the Danube, ^{burg.}

† Busching, tome 9. p. 315—323.

‡ Busching, tome 9. p. 118, 119. Riesbeck, vol. 1. p. 121, 222. Pococke, vol. 3. p. 239.

stands Augsburg, an imperial city of Suabia, famous for the ingenuity of its inhabitants in mechanic arts, particularly that of engraving; surrounded with ditches of vast depth, walls, and other works of defence; supplied with water from the Lech by fine aqueducts; and containing some fine streets, so that it is reckoned on the whole a handsome city; but so greatly decayed by the decrease of its commerce, that, though it has a circuit of above nine miles, its population is said to be reduced to 30,000 §.

Munich.

On the western bank of the Iser, whose waters flow to the Danube, stands Munich or Munchen, the capital of the Bavarian electorate, and one of the most beautiful cities of Germany, commodiously supplied with water by several channels of the river, inclosed with fortifications of no great strength, containing many wide, straight, and handsome streets, and adorned with many sumptuous edifices, among which is the electoral palace, reckoned one of the finest in Europe. Beside this, two other electoral palaces are in the neighbourhood; that of Schleisheim five miles distant, and that of Nymphenburg about half a league; the latter of which has been admired for its gardens, and is accommodated with a canal which extends to Munich ||.

History.

The numerous towns of Germany, of which a specimen has now been given, have had a later origin

§ Busching, tome 8. p. 720—726. Riefbeck, vol. 1. p. 53.

54.

|| Busching, tome 9. p. 36, 37.

than

than those of Italy, Spain, or even France; this country having remained much longer than those in a state of barbarism. Fastnesses in woods or marshes, rudely fortified for the defence of goods and cattle against the incursions of hostile tribes, were what we are to understand by towns among the ancient barbarians of Germany. The permanent conquests of the Romans here were later in their commencement, and far more limited in their extent, than in the neighbouring countries; for they commenced not until about ten years before the birth of Christ, and extended not farther than the borders of the Danube and Rhine, the banks of which rivers were fortified with a chain of garisons to protect the Roman provinces against the irruptions of the formidable clans who then inhabited this extensive country. The boundaries of the ancient Germany, however, were different from those of the modern. Those parts of the latter, which lie on the southern side of the Danube, were then denominated Vindelicia, Rhætia, Noricum, and part of Pannonia. The former was limited on the south and west by the Danube and Rhine, but extended indefinitely north-ward, so as to comprehend the peninsula of Denmark together with other countries about the Baltic, and eastward to the Vistula, which gave to its territory a considerable part of the modern Poland.

As the settlements of the Romans in this country were late and limited, so their expulsion was earlier and much more complete than in the neighbouring regions; the ferocious tribes, who desolated and
dismembered

dismembered their immense empire, being, in some considerable proportion, of German ancestry. The Romans appear to have retained very little hold in this country in the end of the fourth century. The original Germans are understood to have then consisted of five separate and independent nations, each composed of several tribes connected by but feeble ties of union. Of these five nations, denominated the Suabians, or Alemans, the Franks, the Frisians, the Saxons, and the Thuringians, beside the Bavarians or Boiarians, whose origin is uncertain, the Franks, if not the most powerful, rendered themselves at least the most conspicuous; for, establishing an extensive dominion in France near the end of the fifth century, and incorporating with the former inhabitants, they turned their arms in succeeding times against their former country with such effect, that they subjugated almost all Germany about the end of the eighth century under the conduct of Charlemagne, by whose conquests was formed the vast empire of the Franks.

Even before the death of this conqueror his vast dominions were divided by him among his sons; but Lewis the Pious, who survived the rest, inherited the whole, and reunited for a time the parts of this huge empire. It was soon again divided; the three sons of the last mentioned monarch sharing it among them. In this partition, by the treaty of Verdun in the year 843, Germany became the portion of Lewis surnamed the Germanic, since which epocha it has been accounted a separate and independent state, notwithstanding that, by the failure

lure of collateral branches, it was once more reunited with the rest of the immense possessions of Charlemagne under Charles the fat in 884; but this union was of short duration, and Germany was finally separated, this prince being deposed, on account of his bad administration, by a national assembly of the Germans, and Arnulph, natural son of his brother Carloman, elected King of Germany in the year 887.

The German race of princes descended from Charlemagne becoming extinct with Lewis the Infant, son of Arnulph, in the year 911, the nation elected for their sovereign Conrad a nobleman of Franconia. The monarchy, thus becoming in some measure elective, was held next by a succession of princes of the house of Saxony, the second of whom, stiled Otho the Great, who was elected in 936, marching in the year 952, with a numerous army into Italy, and giving law to that country, revived the ill-founded title of Emperor of the Romans, which had been taken by Charlemagne, and caused himself to be stiled Cæsar Augustus in 961; which appellation of imperial majesty his successors have since affected to retain. The sovereignty was afterwards transferred by the suffrages of the nation to princes of Bavaria, Franconia, and Suabia. The monarchy however was not considered as purely elective. When the Germanic body conferred on any prince the imperial sceptre, his family was supposed to reign thenceforth by inheritance; and on its extinction a new family was raised to the throne. But in the twelfth century three
emperors

emperors were successively elected without regard to family; so that since the year 1152 it is established as an unquestionable fact that the imperial dignity is elective. In the year 1273 Rodolph Count of Hapsburg, founder of the Austrian family in all its branches, was elected emperor. Several of his descendants were elevated in succeeding times to the same dignity, and the Austrian family became at length, as it were, the established possessors of the imperial throne, which they have held with very little interruption above three centuries, since the year 1438.

The power exercised by Charlemagne over Germany and his other conquests appears to have been absolute, but the sovereign authority declined in the hands of his successors; the great vassals of the crown taking advantage of their weakness to extend their own influence, and to circumscribe that of the monarch. The diminution, however, of the supreme power proceeded by much slower steps in Germany than in France; for, though Charlemagne's posterity degenerated greatly in both kingdoms, yet those of that race, who ruled in the former, were less indolent and weak than those who so feebly held the sceptre of the latter; besides that the sovereigns of the Saxon line, who afterwards filled the throne, were possessed of much vigour and activity. Yet, even in these reigns, the nobles and great ecclesiastics made gradual advances toward independence. The aggrandisement of the latter was even promoted by the Saxon emperors, through a hope that the influence of the church would counterbalance

terbalance and weaken that of the nobility. This proved a fatal error in the following times, when princes of the Franconian and Suabian lines were at the head of the German empire, for, these churchmen, from their connexion with the See of Rome, were zealous partizans of the sovereign Pontiffs in their attempts to depress the imperial dignity; attempts which met with astonishing success; the Popes, who had before been dependent on the emperors, proceeding to excommunicate, and, by raising factions among their subjects, even to depose their former masters.

The violent contests of the Popes with the Franconian and Suabian emperors afforded a very favourable opportunity to the dignitaries of the church, the great nobility, and the free cities, to enlarge their own privileges, and to reduce within narrower limits the sovereign power. An ample field also was laid open to their usurpations by a long state of confusion, not very properly called an interregnum, which followed the death of the Emperor William of Holland in 1256, when, by the disagreement of the electors, the empire was left many years without a determinate head. So effectual an advantage was taken of these circumstances, that at the accession of Rodolph of Hapsburg, which put an end to the interregnum, the several members of the Germanic body were become almost independent, and the imperial authority was nearly annihilated. In a system composed of so ill connected parts, confusion, anarchy, and intestine wars prevailed. Associations were formed for mutual protection against

violence, and some other partial, and ineffectual measures were taken to remedy the evil; but the confusion subsisted until the Emperor Maximilian restored public order by the institution of a court called the Imperial Chamber, in the year 1495 at Frankfurt on the Maine, which court or tribunal, composed of judges named partly by the emperor and partly by the several states, was vested with full authority to determine finally concerning all disputes between the different members of the Germanic body. The same prince, by persuading the Diet, or assembly of the nation, in the year 1512, to consent to the establishment of the Aulic council, a tribunal composed of judges appointed by himself, restored some degree of vigor to the imperial dignity.

The elections of the German sovereigns were originally made by a great national convention, or assembly, consisting of some thousands of persons; but, in process of time, a few chiefs of the greatest territorial property, and greatest interest in the empire, gained such an influence over the rest of the members, as to render themselves virtually the sole electors. The subordinate persons, therefore, who composed this convention, absented themselves by degrees entirely from a business in which they had no influence, and thus those chiefs or princes became nominally, as well as really, the sole disposers of the imperial crown. History seems not to shew at what time precisely this event took place, but gives us grounds to conclude with certainty, that it happened after the eleventh, and before the middle of

of the thirteenth century *; at which time the number of these electors, or princes exclusively vested with the elective right, was only seven, but was long after augmented to nine. The diet also, or general deliberative assembly of the nation, in which originally every freeman had a right to be present, and which used to be convened at least once in the year, to meet the sovereign, and to deliberate with him concerning their common interest, was, as the dignified ecclesiastics, and great nobility acquired territorial and independent jurisdiction, gradually altered, and at last brought to a totally different form, so as to constitute an assembly of the representatives of the different states which formed the confederacy whose head was the emperor.

Religion, which has every where so close a connexion with civil government, is in a more than ordinary manner interwoven with the history and politics of Germany. The reception of the Christian faith was late in this country, for, it seems to have made little progress until the end of the seventh century; but it afterwards found encouragement among the Germans, and their conversion was nearly completed in the beginning of the ninth century by Charlemagne, who, in his conquest of the Saxons, propagated the gospel, in the Mohammedan manner, with fire and sword. Germany was, in like manner as the neighbouring countries, brought under the subjection of the Roman see with respect to spiritual affairs; but had the fortune of producing the

* Robertson's Charles the Fifth, vol. 1. note 41, to the Introduction.

most formidable opponents of the Papal power. In the beginning of the fifteenth century, the preaching of some Bohemian divines, particularly John Hufs and Jerome of Prague, withdrew from the Romish communion great numbers of the Bohemians and others, who, in consequence of persecution, rose in arms, and, under the conduct of the celebrated Zisca, gave repeated overthrows to the imperial forces; nor even after the death of that much dreaded leader were they overcome without much bloodshed, nor so entirely reduced but that some indulgence was allowed to their religious scruples †. After the commencement of the following century, in a more favorable concurrence of circumstances, when, by the invention of printing, literature was much more generally diffused, an attack was made on the jurisdiction of the Roman Pontiff, attended with vastly more extensive and permanent success.

In the year 1517, Martin Luther, a Friar of the Augustinian order, and Professor of Theology in the Saxon university of Wittenberg, a man of a firm and intrepid spirit, well fitted for so arduous an attempt, called in question the plenitude of the Papal power with respect to the granting of indulgences, or pardons for sins in consideration of sums of money; and, being irritated by the imperious and

† Those of them, who agreed to conform in all other respects to the usages of the Roman Catholic church, were indulged in the participation of the cup as well as the bread in the sacrament of the Lord's Supper, contrary to the practice of that church.

uncandid treatment received from the Roman court, proceeded at length to attack the church of Rome in her vital parts, and to shake the firmest foundations on which her power and wealth were established. His opinions were adopted by great numbers of Germans, who, when a diet of the empire, assembled at Spire in 1529, issued a decree unfavourable to them, entered a solemn protest against it, and from thence received the appellation of *Protestants*, "an appellation which has since become better known and more honorable, by its being applied indiscriminately to all the sects, of whatever denomination, which have revolted from the Roman see †." In the following year, 1530, they presented to the diet convened at Augsburg their confession of faith, to which they were determined inflexibly to adhere.

In 1546, the year in which Luther died, the Emperor Charles the Fifth attempted to suppress the Protestants by force of arms, and met with such success that their condition seemed totally desperate; but the whole fabric, erected by his arms and policy, was overturned at once by a sudden and rapid revolution, conducted by Maurice, the politic Elector of Saxony, inasmuch that the Emperor was obliged to conclude a treaty at Passau in 1552, whereby the Protestants obtained a full toleration and a firm establishment in the empire. This religious peace was confirmed, and the followers of

† Robertson's Charles the Fifth, vol. 1. p. 312. Dublin, 1771.

Luther secured in the enjoyment of their religion, by a decree of the diet assembled at Augsburg in 1555.

The peace of religion regulated and established by this decree, as it regarded only the followers of Luther and the Catholics, left without any legal toleration the Calvinists, a sect which had spread from Switzerland into Germany, and which, though founded by the preaching of Zuingle, Haller, and others, took its name from Calvin, a native of France who fixed his residence at Geneva, and laboured to complete the work of religious reformation. An unchristian enmity subsisted between these and the Lutherans, but they found it necessary to unite for their common defence in the following century, when the Catholic party with the Emperor at its head endeavoured to suppress both sects, and kindled in the empire in 1618, a religious war of thirty years duration, which in its course spread havoc and devastation throughout this extensive country. In this obstinate struggle the affairs of the Protestants declined for some years, and were brought to a low ebb; but they were powerfully aided by the court of France, by whose negotiations and subsidies Gustavus Adolphus King of Sweden was engaged to put himself at their head. This monarch, one of the most consummate warriors recorded in history, soon turned the balance of war in favour of the Protestants, and humbled the Pride of Austria. He died in the course of the war in a career of glory in 1632, but the generals, who had learned their trade under such a master,

master, continued the success of the Swedish arms, and a peace was at length concluded in 1648 by the treaty of Westphalia, in which the claims of the several parties were adjusted, and the state of religion placed on a footing in which it still continues.

By these regulations three religions are severally established in the different states which compose the Germanic system, the Catholic, the Lutheran, and the Calvinist. In a limited signification among the Germans the professors of the second are denominated Protestants, and those of the third the Reformed; but they are both conjointly in a political sense considered as Protestants, in contradistinction to the Catholics, who in point of number are supposed to be to both together as two to one §, but in wealth and influence have not so great a superiority. The Catholics predominate in the south, as in the Austrian dominions and Bavaria; the Lutherans in the north, as in the two Saxonies; and the Calvinists, who are the least numerous of the three, are found chiefly near the Rhine, as in the south of Franconia and in Hesse. But whichever of the three religions is established in any state, the followers of the other two are secured in the enjoyment of all the rights and privileges which they were known to possess in the year 1624, which, in the peace of Westphalia above mentioned, was made what was called the decretory or definitive year. The laws of the empire extend not their protection beyond the three established religions; but various other modes of worship are

§ Zimmermann. p. 212.

permitted in several of the German states, particularly in the Prussian dominions, where the generous and benign spirit of toleration prevails in its utmost extent.

The Protestant subjects of the Catholic states of this empire are exempt from the spiritual jurisdiction of their sovereigns, and the Protestant clergy in general are governed by superintendants, who are in the nature of bishops, and by consistories, or assemblies composed partly of secular and partly of ecclesiastical members, each consistory under the controul of the sovereign of the state in which it is held. In like manner, the Catholic subjects of Protestant states are, in respect of religious matters, independent of their sovereigns, and are subject to their own clergy, who depend ultimately on the Pope. The Catholic hierarchy consists of eight archbishops, forty bishops, and many abbots. Most of the two former are sovereign princes, as are also some of the last. The director, or head, of the Catholic body in the German empire is the archbishop of Mentz, and that of the Protestant, or Evangelical body, as it is called, is the Elector of Saxony. These two directors are charged with the management of the religious concerns of their respective bodies in the general diet of the empire, in which each of the two bodies has the power of making a secession, or of putting a negative on any resolution which the opposite party might attempt to the detriment of its civil or religious rights.

Luthera-
nism.

The Lutherans of Germany, though not perfectly agreeing in all points among themselves throughout

out the different states, differ less on the whole amount, than the followers of the church of England, from the Romanists, in their religious tenets and practices. They admit the doctrine of Consubstantiation, that is, that, though the substance of the bread and wine remains in the sacrament of the Lord's supper, yet, the real body and blood of Christ are there also, and are in a certain mysterious manner incorporated with the material elements. They use, instead of bread, consecrated wafers in this sacrament, which is administered with much pomp amid a blaze of tapers accompanied with a solemn sound of music. The official robes of the priests are marked on the back with a cross, and the pictures of saints are displayed in their churches, but without any degree of worship whatsoever paid to them. Sunday is observed with all religious exactness until the afternoon, but that part of the day is dedicated to concerts, balls, and other such amusements. Convents for women subsist in some of the Lutheran states, but the nuns, if they may be so called, are under no religious vows, and may relinquish these places of retirement when they find it convenient. — A useful institution, which affords a quiet retreat to such gentlewomen as have lost the relish for the gaieties of life, and wish to retreat from the bustle of the world; while, among Roman Catholics, nunneries are traps, where young inexperienced females are by various arts decoyed to take religious vows, and consigned to a hopeless imprisonment during the remainder of their lives.

The

Litera-
ture.

The persevering spirit of the Germans, freed in a great measure, in the Protestant states, from those shackles which bigotry imposes on the understanding in many parts of the world, has made an extraordinary progress in most branches of literature. In works of fancy, wit, and humor, the Germans have had but little success; a brilliancy of imagination, though doubtless to be found in some individuals, being by no means prevalent in general among them. In dramatic writings they seem to have chiefly failed. Comedy appears not to be much their object, and tragedy, which oftener employs the pens of their writers, is commonly composed in a bad taste, the characters often unnatural, or extravagant, and the plots frequently bearing a tincture of barbarism. The cause of this failure is probably the want of encouragement; the French language prevailing in all the courts, and French plays exhibited in preference to German. In history the Germans display far less of animation than accuracy and method, and contribute little to the pleasure, but much to the information of their readers; their compositions on this subject consisting mostly of dry matter of fact, without those pleasing reflections, and elegant descriptions, which so much enliven the works of some historians, particularly the British. In general we may allow that where laborious investigation, steady perseverance, and cool judgment, are necessary, the Germans are hardly surpassed by any people; as in jurisprudence, and experimental philosophy, particularly chymistry,

try, for the discoveries and improvements in which the world is highly indebted to German industry ||.

In no other country on the surface of our globe is to be found so great a number of persons, who profess the cultivation of literature, as in Germany. "The number of readers in the German empire, and in the neighbouring countries, especially in the north of Europe, where the German language has an extensive circulation, is large enough to encourage the publication of no less than 5000 annual literary productions, of which two-thirds are original performances, and one-third translations from other languages *." At the fairs of Leipzig, which is the chief literary mart in this empire, books are sold and exchanged to the value of above 70,000 pounds annually †. In the multitude of persons who profess literature are great numbers of ignorant boasters and pedants, especially in the southern parts, where the chief species of literature seems to be a superficial knowledge and inelegant use of the Latin tongue; and the most prevalent subject of reading is novels, romances, or fairy tales. Among the vast number also of books annually published, are many of little or no merit. But on the whole amount, this extraordinary diffusion of literature is attended with many and great advantages, particularly as it tends to banish illiberal prejudices, and

|| Busching, tome 6. p. 40—45. Riefbeck, vol. 1. p. 61—73. vol. 2. p. 176—179, 188, 272, 273, 451.

* Zimmermann, p. 111.

† Riefbeck, vol. 2. p. 46. Zimmermann, p. 112.

to deter the princes of the empire from wicked or ignoble deeds by the fear of exposition. Many of the German scholars are men of merit, who contribute to their country's honour; and many voluminous compilations, which are considered as rather dull, though laborious performances, are yet of very great utility, as they may with truth be considered as vast magazines of erudition, whence men of genius may draw materials for treatises of a more brilliant nature.

Learning, of which such multitudes in Germany participate in a greater or less degree, is very far from being equably diffused through all parts of this country. A remarkable difference in this respect is observed to subsist between the Catholics and Protestants; the cultivation of letters being more general, and carried to a higher pitch among the latter than among the former †. Of all the Germans, literature seems to flourish least among the Bavarians and Austrians, and most among the Saxons: the country of the last is said to furnish more men of polite literature than all the rest of Germany together §.

Univer-
sities.

The division of the universities, between the two denominations of Christians in this empire, seems

† Mr. Pilati says that young men of twenty years of age among the Protestants, know more than old literati by profession among the Catholics.

With him agrees Riesbeck, who, on his arrival into Saxony from Bohemia, found as great a difference as if he had come out of Spain into France. Vol. 2. p. 16.

§ Riesbeck, vol. 2. p. 51.

to mark in some degree the unequal partition of literature between them. Beside many academies and literary societies, Germany contains thirty-eight universities, of which those of Erfurt and Heidelberg belong to both sects||. Of the remaining thirty-six, only seventeen belong to the Catholics, among which are those of Cologne, Mentz, Vienna, and Prague. The Protestants, though in number of persons they are supposed to be no more than equal to half the Catholics, possess nineteen universities, among which are those of Gottingen, Leipzig, Tübingen, and Wittenberg. The objects of study and modes of instruction are by no means the same. In several of those which belong to the Catholics, the useless metaphysics of the Schoolmen, absurdly called philosophy, are still read; but in several of those which are in the possession of Protestants, the mind is directed to worthy objects and useful pursuits. "The theory of trades and mechanical arts, the principles of private and public œconomy, of internal administration, and the science of finances; the knowledge of the political situation, resources and wealth of every state, have been added to the established list of academical sciences, and they employ the talents of a great number of writers, under the name of technology, œconomy, science of finances, and statistic§." One of the best of the German universities is that of Gottingen in the Hanoverian dominions, containing about 800 stu-

|| Busching, tome 6. p. 42.

§ Zimmermann, p. 108, 109.

dents,

dents, and patronised by the British monarch as Elector of Hanover, by whom also it was founded *.

Lan-
guage.

The language of Bohemia, Lusatia, Silesia, Moravia, Carniola, and part of Stiria, though the inhabitants also commonly speak German, is a dialect of the Sclavonian, quite different from the German tongue †. ~~The latter, commonly called High Dutch, is of the same Teutonic origin with the English,~~ and still bears a considerable affinity with that language. The German itself is divided into dialects so different, that the inhabitants of some provinces can scarcely render themselves intelligible to those of others. Saxony is the country in which the German language is said to be written and spoken in the greatest purity ‡. The improving and polishing of this language, which is accounted bold, manly, and copious, is greatly retarded by the low estimation in which it is held by the German nobility, who are apt to consider it as a vulgar dialect, and cultivate the French as the only proper language for people of fashion. At the courts of Germany all business is transacted in French, and even the proclamations of some of the princes are first written in that language, and afterwards translated into German that they may be understood by their subjects §.

* Riefbeck, vol. 2. p. 273, 274.

† Eufching. tome 6. p. 27.

‡ Riefbeck, vol. 2. p. 39, 49. But Mrs. Piozzi, (p. 580) says, that the language spoken at the city of Hanover is the criterion of perfect German.

§ Riefbeck, vol. 2. p. 177, 178. Moore. vol. 1. letter 47.

The Bohemians, Silesians, Moravians, and some ^{Persons.} others, having a totally different language and origin, have also, notwithstanding a long intercourse, somewhat different personal traits from the descendants of the original Germans, who are found most unmixed in lower Saxony, Franconia, Suabia, and the greater part of Westphalia. In the fifth century, and other such early times, Wendish or Venedic tribes, part of the great Slavonian race, possessed themselves of many German territories, as Mecklenburg, Pomerania, Wagria, Lauenburg, Brandenburg, and Misnia *. The posterity of these appear to be generally more or less mixed with the original Germans. But the people of Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia, who have suffered very little intermixture, are not in strictness of speech Germans, and bear in their persons a nearer resemblance to the Croats, and other descendants of the Slavonians. Those who are more properly called Germans, are in general not much unlike the English in shape, size, and complexion. They have commonly a white skin, light-grey or blue eyes, and hair of a light-brown or fair cast. This colour of the hair is far from predominant in the country about Mentz, and some other territories which border the Rhine †. It seems also to prevail in a less degree in the southern than the northern parts; in the latter of which the hair is often seen not only fair,

* Puttar's Developement of the German empire, London 1790. Vol. 1. p. 7.

† Riefbeck, vol. 2. p. 347, 365.

but also crisp, or of a curling nature †. The fairest and most handsome of all the inhabitants of this great country are the Saxons §. The Germans in general are of a large size and inclined to corpulence. Those who dwell in the southern parts are observed to be taller than the inhabitants of the low marshy countries in the north, whose bodies are rounder and more clumsy ||.

Habits.

In dress the nobility of Germany have mostly adopted the modes of France, and in general the habits of the Germans are the same with those of France and England, excepting some differences in the cut and manner of wearing. In this respect many local distinctions are observable, so that, though, in some parts, as in Saxony, the gentry and citizens dress in what is called the fashion, yet in others prevail certain national modes of attire, to which even the superior classes of people conform. Thus in Bavaria the waistcoats of the men are very long and broad, and their breeches hang low and loose. In the same country, the stays of the women are shaped like a funnel, and hide the neck *, while at Hamburg, stays are, or at least some years ago were, entirely excluded from female apparel †; and in Hesse the petticoats of the female peasantry, who are mostly clothed in black, are fixed so high as to

† Riefbeck, vol. 2. p. 204, 280. Nugent, vol. 1. let. 8.

§ Riefbeck, vol. 2. p. 259.

|| Riefbeck, vol. 2. p. 259.

* Riefbeck, vol. 1. p. 98.

† Nugent, vol. 1. let. 2.

conceal the shape of the body and expose the legs †; an ungraceful custom, which also prevails in some parts of Switzerland. In almost all Germany laced or embroidered cloaths and such gaudy ornaments seem to be preferred to neatness and simplicity of attire §. But what beyond all comparison more merits censure is, that the ladies in many places, with a preposterous view of augmenting their charms, destroy the real natural beauty of the skin by paint, particularly at Vienna, where this unwholesome varnish is often seen covering the face to the eyes and ears in the French manner ||.

With respect to food the Germans have nothing Food, peculiar or very remarkable. Nearly in like manner as among the English, animal food makes a large proportion of their diet, and their common drink consists of beer and spirituous liquors, excepting in those parts where the vine is cultivated. Sour-cROUT, at present well known in the British islands, is much in use at the German tables. Prodigious quantities of coffee are consumed, it having become common, at least in the northern provinces, even among the peasants, who boil it in large pots, generally however making but a weak liquor from it, and mostly mixing milk with it *. The gentry enrich their coffee with cream, as in

† Riefbeck, vol. 2. p. 279.

§ Riefbeck, vol. 1. p. 98. Nugent, vol. 1. let. 2, 10. Pizzozzi, p. 514, 542.

|| Riefbeck, vol. 1. p. 210.

* Riefbeck, vol. 2. p. 39. Nugent, vol. 1. let. 5. and vol. 2. let. 15.

Britain, and in the evening not only regale themselves with this beverage, but also, in some places, as at Vienna, feast on bowls of chocolate thickened at once with cream and bread†. In food, much more than in dress, local differences are to be expected: thus in Westphalia a kind of bread called pompernickel, made of rye coarsely ground, with all the bran remaining in it, hard, black as fossil coal, baked in large loaves, and cut occasionally with an axe, is not only eaten by the peasantry, but also presented in small slices with fresh butter at polite tables‡.

Houses. Very little can be said about the houses of this country, a few small provincial differences in the modes of building being scarcely worth notice, such as that in several towns of the north, as Hamburg, Wismar, and Schwerin, the roofs are of a pyramidal form, in the Dutch manner, ending in a point at top§. They differ from those of Britain in the inside and in the furniture, more than in the outward appearance. The rooms are without hearths, grates, or any appearance of fire, but are warmed equably all through, to what degree is thought proper, by means of stoves, which open on the outside, so that those who are within the room see not the fire; are heated by a small quantity of fuel, and diffuse the heat uniformly all around the chamber||. An article of the furniture

† Piozzi, p. 527, 539.

‡ Nugent, vol. 2. let. 23.

§ Nugent, vol. 1. let. 2, 4, 5.

|| Nugent, vol. 1. let. 2.

of the Germans, which ought perhaps to be mentioned, is their accommodations for sleeping, in which they generally use no blankets or quilts, but sleep between two feather-beds, one over and the other under, which is doubtless comfortable in the severe winters of this country, but is almost intolerable in summer to foreigners unaccustomed to it *.

The Germans are generally understood to be of a slow, dull, heavy, and phlegmatic genius, quite the opposites of their sprightly neighbours the French; but they are also allowed to have solid sense, to be cool, deliberate, patient, persevering, and indefatigable in their pursuits. Though, from want of encouragement the country is not every where well cultivated, the industry of the Germans seems almost inexhaustible. Many of their mountains are excavated by innumerable mines: their men of learning, mostly unsuccessful in works of imagination, have shewn what astonishing efforts the human mind is capable of performing in studies the most severe and least amusing; their military men, soldiers rather from habit than inclination, have carried the art of war to the highest stage of improvement, exhibiting in their numerous armies the most perfect models of military discipline; and, in short, they seem to excel all other nations in whatever acquisitions are attainable by length of time and obstinate toil alone.

Integrity is a happy ingredient in the German character: honesty is so sedulously inculcated on the

* Nugent, vol. 1. let. 2. Piozzi, p. 536.

minds of youth by parents and spiritual instructors, that robbers, murderers, and other atrocious criminals, are comparatively very few in this country †. But this observance of good order is far from universal, as we find that in Bavaria, and some other Catholic states, as the territories of Aix-la-Chapelle and Cologne, many highway-robberies and murders are committed ‡.

The Germans are in their manner of address plain, open, candid, and sincere, void of artifice and disguise. This noble simplicity, distinguished by the name of frankness, is reputed to be more the characteristic of the Catholic than of the Protestant part of this great nation; while the latter surpasses the former in frugality and industry §. Hospitality and kindness to strangers are ranked among the German virtues, but civility in this respect is sometimes carried so far as to give pain where pleasure is intended; the absurd, and, in the eye of reason, unpolite custom of forcing guests to drink more than appetite requires, or is consistent with health, having formerly very much prevailed, and doubtless in some degree still prevailing, in this country. This is a consequence of that intemperance, both with respect to eating and drinking, which has always been charged on the Germans, and which continues at the present time to subsist to a degree of disgust in Bavaria, Austria, and the

† Nugent, vol. 1. let. 3. Hanway.

‡ Riesebeck, vol. 1. p. 104. Baron Trenck's Life, vol. 2. p. 56. Dublin, 1789.

§ Riesebeck vol. 2. p. 12, 15, 95, also the last page of all.

ecclesiastical states ||. But happily this brutal indulgence of the grosser appetite has greatly declined in general in the northern parts, especially in the Saxon electorate, and in the Prussian dominions, where the middle ranks of people pay more attention to dress than to the gratification of the palate, and know how to attemper sensual by intellectual pleasure *. Yet also in the northern parts the enjoyment of the table is such an object, that, in some places, as in Hamburg, a different kind of wine is, in the houses of the rich, by custom appropriated to each particular species of victuals; ideal propriety in this case requiring, that, while a person is eating of any particular dish, he should drink only that species of wine which is supposed to be adapted to it †. A remarkable place of convivial ebriety was formerly the city of Heidelberg in the Palatinate of the Rhine, in which is a famous tun of the capacity of 800 hogheads, at present empty, but heretofore kept constantly full of the best Rhenish wine, from which visitants were not permitted to return sober. The drunkenness of the lower classes is attended with great detriment in this country to the public

|| Riefbeck, vol. 1. p. 218. In houses in Vienna, where the highest stile of living is affected, doses of tartar emetic, when an entertainment is given, are placed in an adjoining room, into which any guest, when he finds his stomach overloaded, retires, and after disgorging the contents, returns to table as if nothing uncommon had happened. Riefbeck, vol. 1. p. 284.

* Riefbeck, vol. 2. p. 15, 95.

† Riefbeck, vol. 2. p. 210. This mode, but in a much lower degree, is used in some British families.

in

in general. In most parts of Germany men of handicraft trades dedicate every Monday in the year, under the name of blue Monday, to the gross joys of Bacchus, combining in a resolution not to exercise their trades, or any species of industry, on that day †.

Among the foibles of the Germans is to be reckoned their minute attention to form and ceremony; even their amusements being subjected to such rules of etiquette, as to a less phlegmatic people would appear extremely burdensome, and the little court of each petty prince displaying all the farce and pedantry of state, which could be expected in those of the greatest potentates ‡. Connected with this punctilious humour is their love of ostentation, pomp, and splendor, in which the princes and nobles indulge, to the great distress of their poor subjects and tenants. No people on earth are more dazzled than the Germans with the splendor of birth and title, or observe the distinction of ranks with more scrupulous precision. This kind of folly, too prevalent among the low and the high vulgar of many other countries, is carried to an extravagant and ridiculous excess in Germany, where no species of merit can atone for a defect of this nature §. Even wealth, which irresistibly commands

† Puttar, vol. 2. p. 130—132.

‡ Moore, vol. 1. let. 41, 42. Vol. 2. let. 58. Puttar, vol. 2. p. 196—204.

§ Moore, vol. 1. let. 47, 48. Vol. 2. let. 58. Nugent, vol. 2. let. 15, 20. Puttar, vol. 2. p. 284—286. Vol. 3. p. 59—65.

the respect of all ranks of vulgar in other parts of the globe, is not here so efficacious as to be able completely to repair the flaw. Thus, for example, if a man of princely birth marries a lady of a lower rank than that of a countess, which sometimes happens on account of riches, he deigns not to give her his right hand, but only his left, in the nuptial ceremony; and, unless the Emperor formally creates her a princess of the empire, the match remains disgraceful, the wife is not even allowed to bear the husband's name, nor can her children succeed to his honors and estates ||.

Yet, notwithstanding all their pride of birth and title, the German princes and nobility are uncommonly affable and courteous to those who are admitted to their presence, especially to foreigners; and the rigid rules of etiquette have of late years been much relaxed, particularly in the Prussian dominions, and even in those of Austria; the late Emperor, Joseph the Second, a man of generous and liberal sentiments, having endeavoured during all his reign to banish by his example these absurd notions, which so greatly circumscribe the pleasures of society; but deeply rooted prejudices cannot suddenly be destroyed, and still, in general throughout this empire, persons of low rank, however great their merit, or even wealth, may be, are excluded from every thing which pertains to court or nobility, and are not admitted into the society of those who are dignified with title: Hence urba-

nity is but little diffused, and the German plainness, which in the noble is disinterested civility, is often in others offensive rudeness, or clownish affectation.

The idea of superiority, grafted on the German integrity, renders the nobility of this country men of strict honor; but it leads them also to despise agriculture, commerce, and the arts, merely because such are the occupations of those whom they are habituated to consider as an inferior race of beings. The greater part of them adopt the military life in the service of various princes; and the nearest kinsmen, even brothers, are commonly seen ranged in opposite and hostile armies *. The military department is by this well supplied with titled officers, for the nobility of Germany are numerous, and many of them poor; all the sons of a nobleman equally inheriting his title. The indifference, with which military men of the same family embrace the service of mutually inimical potentates, seems to arise partly from the divided nature of the German government, the different members of which consider not each other as partaking of a common interest. To this divided government is doubtless owing, that the Germans have not that degree of patriotism, nor of national pride, which is observed in the Spaniards, French,

* Moore, vol. 2. let. 58. Thus we find Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick and his brother Prince Lewis engaged in actual combat on opposite sides in the seven years war, the one in the Prussian, the other in the Austrian service. This is one in a multitude of instances.

Britons, and some other nations. But not all the Germans are to be supposed to be destitute of a laudable partiality for their native soil; patriotic love and patriotic pride being found to subsist with considerable strength, and not without a reasonable foundation, in Saxony, among the subjects of the Prussian monarch †.

The fair sex in Germany seem not to be treated among the middle ranks of people with so great a degree of respect, as in France; the women in that station of life being by education reserved in their demeanor and very obsequious to their husbands ‡. But, among the higher ranks, a custom quite like that of the Italian Cicerbeism prevails §, at least in the Austrian and Prussian capitals, where "it is not uncommon for married ladies to avow the greatest degree of friendship and attachment to men who are not their husbands, and to live with them in great intimacy, without hurting their reputation, or being suspected, even by their own sex, of having deviated from the laws of modesty ||." These admirers "attend them on all occasions, are invited with them to all entertainments, sit next them at table," and are placed by the master or mistress of the house "in the same party at cards. When a lady is not provided with an attendant of this kind, her husband, as well as herself, is generally

† Riefbeck, vol. 2. p. 18, 19, 95.

‡ Nugent, vol. 1. let. 2.

§ Riefbeck, vol. 1. p. 300, 368.

|| Moore, vol. 2. let. 86.

a little out of countenance, and both seem in rather an awkward situation, till this necessary concomitant be found*." This kind of gallantry seems here, as well as in Italy, not always confined within the bounds of Platonism.

The nobility of this country are extremely fond of hunting, and retain in this business, still in a great measure, the barbarous spirit of the feudal times; for, not only extensive tracts are kept waste for the range of the game, but even also the farmers are prohibited in some places from raising fences for the security of their fields, and from driving their cattle to the vicinity of the woods, lest the wild swine, deer, and other objects of the chase, should be limited in food, or room for excursion †. The fair sex often mingle in hunting parties, and even sometimes manage the gun with dexterity; but commonly, on such occasions, hunting is deprived of the only thing laudable which belongs to it, exercise and the adroit management of the horse; the company placing themselves in a convenient situation on chairs, and firing at the game which is driven towards them by troops of peasants arranged for that purpose ‡.

The ladies also in some parts of Germany participate with the men in the play of nine-pins §, and some other such exercises; but a kind of amusement which is more peculiar to the Germans is that of

* Moore, vol. 2. let. 69.

† Rieselbeck, vol. 1. p. 99, 158.

‡ Moore, vol. 2. let. 92.

§ Nugent, vol. 1. let. 9.

the traineau, which can take place only in winter, when the ground is covered with snow, and is also hard-frozen. A traineau is a machine made in the form of a swan, lion, unicorn, or some other whimsical shape, variously ornamented according to the fancy of the owner, and constructed at bottom in the nature of a sledge, so as to glide with a smooth, easy, and agreeable motion along the snow. A pole stands up from one side, and on it is placed an ensign or flag, which waves over the heads of those who are placed on the machine. A lady wrapped in fur sits before, and a gentleman stands behind on a board made for that purpose. The traineau is commonly drawn by two horses, which are either conducted by a postillion or driven by the gentleman. The horses are gaudily ornamented, and have bells hanging from the trappings which cover them. A series of 20, 30, or more traineaux, one following another at a convenient distance, drives during two or three hours through the principal streets of a city, or on the ice of a frozen river; the horses going at either a canter or brisk trot, and servants on horse-back attending, and carrying flambeaux when the amusement is taken in the night, which is mostly the case, when the whole, considering the bells, flags, and flambeaux, forms an exhibition very pleasing both to the actors and spectators. The traineau is also used, in the proper season, as a vehicle of conveyance in journeys, and this mode of travelling is said to be even delightful. ||.

|| Moore, vol. 1. let. 47.

On

On horseback the German ladies sit astride in the same manner as the men, and in convivial meetings they associate more than those of Britain with the opposite sex; for they withdraw not themselves from the rest of the company after meals, but sit eating fruit or sweetmeats, and drinking a little, until the whole company rise.

The above short sketch of German manners is by no means to be understood as not admitting great exceptions and variations; an uniformity of customs and manners being little to be expected in a country of so very great extent, where such diversity is found in the language and origin of the people, where no one city is regarded as a common capital or center of imitation, and where the different parts of the empire are under distinct governments independent one of another.

Govern-
ment.

Germany with respect to its government is a vast complex body, regarding the Emperor as its head, and composed of above 300 states, which are extremely unequal in magnitude, unequal in dignity, and various in their modes of administration, connected by a general confederacy, but so imperfectly associated, as in general to consider the one the other rather as foreign states, than as parts of the same vast community combined by the participation of a common interest. In an assembly called the General Diet, composed of the representatives or deputies of these states together with the Emperor, is vested the supreme legislative power of this great confederation.

The

The states, which, by right of voting in the general diet, participate of the sovereign power of the Germanic system, are called the immediate states of the empire, and, considered in their separate capacity, have each of them sovereign power in their own internal administration, limited only by the general laws of the empire, and the jurisdiction of two high imperial courts of justice, from which jurisdiction, however, the principal of them are exempted. In those which are privileged by this exemption, courts of appeal are established, in which the decrees of the courts of justice, especially in contests between the sovereign and his subjects, may be revised and reversed. In cases of extremity also the subjects of a state may carry their complaints to the general diet. This mode of redress has little or no effect in the more powerful states, but is a considerable check on the sovereigns of the petty districts.

The states, which compose the great system of the German empire, are distinguished into ecclesiastical and secular. The latter consists of secular principalities and free cities. Both the ecclesiastical and secular princes are in general more or less limited in the government of their respective territories by what are called the states in each principality. These which are denominated the mediate states, as having no immediate concern in the general government of the empire, consist in each principality of the nobility, clergy, and burghers, all of whom have in some principalities considerable privileges. By the burghers are signified such of the commons

commons as enjoy certain rights, by which they are politically united with, or exempted from the jurisdiction of, the nobility, and depend immediately on the prince. The peasantry are still in many parts of Germany, as in Mecklenburg, Holstein, Pomerania, Lusatia, Westphalia, Suabia, Hesse, the Palatinate, and the bishopric of Hildesheim, but not every where in the same degree, a kind of feudal slaves, without property in land, without rights as a part of the body politic, and subject almost entirely to the arbitrary will of their landlords; but, by reason of a certain kind of humanity and integrity in the German character, which in some degree withholds oppression, their condition is less to be lamented than that of feudal slaves in other countries. This kind of slavery was abolished in his patrimonial territories in 1782 by the Emperor Joseph the Second, who with a noble humanity gave liberty to the peasants; and his example was soon followed by the benevolent Margrave of Baden-Baden. The most oppressed of the Germans are said to be the subjects of such petty princes as reside in the great courts, and leave their people to the mercy of their stewards, who commonly make their fortunes by the pillage of the poor defenceless peasantry.

Ecclesiastical
princes.

The ecclesiastical princes of Germany are partly Catholic, and partly Protestant. The former may be conceived as a kind of subordinate popes, being elected by the clergy of their respective chapters, and holding the sovereign territorial and religious authority in the several districts over which they preside.

preside. They consist of archbishops, bishops, abbots, prelates, and even abbeesses, all of whom are confirmed in their elections by the Pope, to whom they are obliged to pay certain sums of money. The Protestant ecclesiastical princes, who are far less numerous than the Catholic, consist of bishops and abbeesses, all Lutherans, except the abbeess of Herford in Westphalia who is a Calvinist; all elected in the same manner as the Catholics by their chapters, but requiring no confirmation from the Pope, and considering themselves entirely as secular persons. The ecclesiastical princes, whether Catholic or Protestant, have not every where an equal power over their subjects, nor are the chapters, by which they are elected, every where equally free in the making of their choice. A peculiar limitation is that which takes place in the chapter of Osnabrug in Westphalia, which consists of 25 canons, of whom three at least are Protestants, and which is obliged to elect a Catholic and Protestant bishop alternately. At the death of the Protestant bishop they choose a Catholic for his successor, and at the decease of the Catholic they must take for their bishop a Protestant of the family of Brunswick-Lunenburg; in consequence of which the bishopric of Osnabrug is at present held by Prince Frederic, son of George the Third, King of Great Britain. An ecclesiastical prince may be possessed of more than one principality; as the archbishop of Cologne at present is also bishop of Munster.

The secular princes, who are immediate members of the great confederation of Germany, are, ^{Secular} ^{princes.} beside

beside one king and one archduke, composed of what are called dukes, marquises, princes properly so denominated, and counts, beside other titles little known beyond the limits of the Germanic empire. These various princes are monarchs of extremely unequal territorial possessions, most of them limited in a greater or less degree in the administration of their governments, and all of them succeeding by hereditary right; the inheritance mostly descending to the eldest in the male line. The dominions of these, as well as those of the ecclesiastical princes, are seldom compact; the territories of one being often intermixed with those of another. In several instances also a territorial property is possessed separately by separate branches of the same family, who thus constitute distinct members of the Germanic system; as, for one instance, Hesse is divided between the princes of Hesse-Cassel and Hesse-Darmstadt; and, on the other hand, several distinct properties may often be seen in the possession of one prince. Instances also occur of a territory being held alternately by two, or conjointly by several persons governing in common. We also sometimes find a territory so possessed by different branches of a family, that though by the right of primogeniture one reigning sovereign only is acknowledged, whose supremacy extends over the territories of the younger branches, yet the younger are real sovereigns each in his own territory, excepting some particular rights of supremacy which are reserved for the elder reigning sovereign. But we are not to suppose that all who bear the title of duke,

duke, prince, and other such appellations of dignity, are immediate members of the empire. All the sons of a duke are stiled princes, and mostly all the sons of a dignified secular personage inherit his title; but to the eldest only in general devolves the real power and substantial property. Many also, who not only carry such high titles, but have, besides, large possessions in land, though in one sense they are immediate members of the empire, when they regard the Emperor alone as their immediate head, yet have no place in the government of the empire, as having no seat in the diet. In this predicament are the free immediate nobility, or imperial knights of Germany, who are sovereigns, each in his little territory, and form a union among themselves, appointing certain representatives to undertake the care of their joint concerns. These knights are divided into three bodies called circles, of Franconia, Suabia, and the Rhine, over each of which presides an officer denominated captain. Most of the territorial princes of this empire have very small revenues, and several of them receive subsidies from foreign states, in consideration of troops, which they occasionally send abroad for hire.

The imperial towns of Germany are a sort of subordinate commonwealths, acknowledging the Emperor alone as their immediate superior, governed by their own magistrates, and having a right of voting by their deputies in the general diet. Excepting Frankfurt on the Maine and Hamburg, in which the forms of government are of a more eli-

Imperial
cities.

gible kind, they are gradually falling into decay by defects in their political constitutions, and some have dwindled even into villages. Several of them, by carrying their private contests to the Emperor's court, have rendered themselves dependent on that monarch. In most of their governments aristocracy and democracy are blended together, but in some, particularly that of Nuremberg, aristocracy only is to be found. In some the Catholic is the established religion, in others the Protestant, and in others, as Augsberg, both religions conjointly. Beside the imperial towns which send deputies to the general diet, in Germany are also some free parishes or imperial villages, which are immediate members though without seats in the diet. Beside these the empire contains within it some free cities, which are not imperial, being under the immediate protection of some other prince, not of the Emperor, and which may be denominated free provincial cities.

The Em-
peror.

The supreme head of the Germanic system, in whom is vested the right of assembling the general diet with the consent of the electoral princes, of presiding in this assembly in person or by his commissary, of proposing to it the subjects of debate, of confirming its resolutions by his assent, or of obstructing them by his disapprobation, and of putting its decrees in execution, is the German Emperor, who is considered as an elective, as well as a limited monarch. He is in Germany the fountain of honor, being empowered to confer all such noble and princely titles as are in use in the German states; and, on the ill-founded supposition that the
German

German emperors are the successors of the Roman, he takes precedence of all Christian sovereigns. He is the supreme judge in whose name justice is administered in the high courts of the empire, and he has the power of exempting any of the states from the justice of these tribunals, by granting them what is called the privilege *de non appellando*. Among the rest of his prerogatives, all which are called *affervata*, or *reservata*, he has the power of granting charters to universities, of abridging the time of minority to heirs, and claims the right of establishing post-offices all over the empire; but several of the states pay little attention to this claim, and regulate the posts in what manner they think proper in their own territories. His power over the empire is, on the whole amount, very limited. He can neither raise taxes, nor with a title given to any one confer a corresponding power, nor begin an offensive war, nor conclude a peace, nor alter any law of the German system, without the consent of the general diet.

The princes stiled electors, in whom is exclusively vested the right of electing the Emperor, are at present eight in number. Of these princes three are ecclesiastics; the archbishops of Mentz, Treves, and Cologne; of whom the first is great chancellor of the empire. The remaining five electors are secular princes, and consist of the King of Bohemia, who has the office of cup-bearer to the Emperor; the elector of the Palatinate and of Bavaria, who is great steward; the elector of Saxony who is great marshal; the elector of Brandenburg, who is the

king of Prussia, and bears the office of great chamberlain; and the elector of Hanover, arch-treasurer of the empire, who is also king of Great Britain.

By the laws of the empire, when the imperial throne becomes vacant, the archbishop of Mentz is to notify the event in the space of a month, and the electors are to assemble in order to choose a new emperor at Frankfurt on the Maine, or elsewhere if necessary, either in their own persons or by their deputies, before the end of three months. The electors are bound to assemble without notification if it should be neglected. Aix-la-Chapelle has a legal right to be the place of his imperial majesty's coronation, but this ceremony is commonly performed at the place of election. A majority of suffrages of the electors, or their deputies, without regard of any who may be absent, decides the choice, and each elector, except the ecclesiastics, may vote in favour of himself as a candidate for the imperial crown. The suffrages are collected by the archbishop of Mentz, and his is received by the elector of Saxony, or by the archbishop of Treves. It was determined by a precedent in 1745 that, if an electorate devolves to a female, her vote is equally valid as that of a male elector.

Notwithstanding the elective nature of this imperial monarchy, the succession has long been regularly held by the archducal family of Austria. A prevailing mode has been to elect, in the life of the reigning emperor, a successor under the title of King of the Romans, who was thus, without farther election, ready to ascend the throne whenever it should become vacant.

The Emperor styles himself Roman Emperor elect, always august, King of Germany; and receives from the German states the title of most serene, most powerful, most invincible Roman Emperor; King of Germany, most merciful Emperor and lord. He bears, as his armorial badge, a black eagle with expanded wings, with two heads, and an imperial crown, in a field of gold. The king of the Romans also takes the title of always august, and King of Germany; and bears for his armorial ensign an eagle with only one head. When he becomes emperor he reckons the years of his reign, not from the commencement of his government, but from the time of his election.

During the time in which the imperial throne happens to become vacant, or the emperor is unable to govern in person, the reigns of the supreme authority are assumed by the Elector of the Palatinate and the Elector of Saxony; who are stiled vicars, or administrators, of the empire; the former presiding over one part of the country, particularly the territories which lie along the Rhine; the latter over another part, in which is included Saxony; but some divisions of the empire, especially Austria, are exempt from their jurisdiction. The Emperor also, when unable to act in person, may appoint a vicar, or substitute; but the power of such an officer depends wholly on the sovereign.

The general diet, in which, in conjunction with the emperor, is lodged the sovereign power of the Germanic league, has been held, without any dissolution, almost constantly at the city of Ratisbon since

General
diet.

since the year 1663, when it began to be perpetual. If it should happen to be dissolved, the emperor ought to re-assemble it at least once in ten years; and he might convoke it at any time, with consent of the electoral princes, at any place within the limits of the empire. It consists of three colleges, that of the electors, that of the princes, and that of the imperial towns. The two former are called the superior colleges. With respect to religion it is considered as distinguished into two bodies, that of the Catholics and that of the Protestants, the latter of which is called the Evangelical body. The archbishop of Mentz is the head of the Catholic body, and the King of Prussia the actual head of the Protestant, though the Elector of Saxony, under the title of Director, is supposed to possess that station. The three colleges assemble in a hall to receive the Emperor's propositions, but deliberate separately, each in a distinct chamber. A majority of voices decides in each college, excepting in a few cases, particularly where the Catholics and Protestants are of different opinions, in which circumstance a secession takes place, and the vote of the minority has the same legal force with that of the majority. This right of secession, which is called *jus eundi in partes*, preserves the equality of the two religious denominations, rendering a majority of suffrages on one side of no avail to oppress the other. A resolution in which the three colleges agree, becomes, when confirmed by the Emperor, an act or law of the empire; and a collection of all the acts made during the session is called the recess of the empire,

empire. If any one of the three colleges dissents from the other two, the matter in debate is generally laid aside, for a majority of the three is of no validity. The Emperor has great influence in all the three colleges; the ecclesiastical princes of the two superior colleges commonly obtaining their dignities by his interest, and the imperial cities depending on him for protection against the more powerful states by which they are surrounded. As the princes of the empire attend not the diet in person, but send envoys, one of whom often is commissioned with the delivery of the votes of many courts at once; and as the representation of the imperial cities is chiefly made by a few senators of Ratisbon, the whole diet at present consists of hardly more than thirty ministers, or comital envoys, though the number of votes amounts to 157.

The college of electors, of which the archbishop of Mentz is director, or president, consists of the eight electors above mentioned, or their deputies, who have, beside the exclusive right of choosing the Emperor, several privileges above the other states of the empire, which are not all necessary to be here enumerated. They form among themselves a particular league called the Electoral Union, and can assemble to consider what may be expedient for their own community, or for the empire. Their states are exempt from appeals to the imperial courts of law. They are legally beyond the age of minority when they have completed their eighteenth year, and are stiled their Most Serene Electoral Highnesses, excepting those ecclesiastical electors who are not princes by birth, such being stiled only their Electoral

Electoral Highnesses. The Emperor in his addresses gives to the secular electors the title of Most Serene and of Uncle, or Cousin; to the ecclesiastical, that of Most Reverend and Nephew.

College
of Princes.

The college of princes is composed of the immediate ecclesiastical and secular princes below the electoral rank, appearing personally or by their deputies. In this college the votes are vested mostly in the landed properties, not in the persons, of the voters. Hence, while some princes have only single votes, others have five or more each, as having so many territorial properties to each of which belongs a vote. With the exception of a very small number, who sit among the superior princes of this college, the counts, abbots, and abbeesses, have not even single votes, but give their suffrages collectively. The body of counts have among them but four votes; for they are divided into four classes or benches, the Wetteravian, Suabian, Franconian, and Westphalian, to each of which belongs only one suffrage. In like manner the abbots, abbeesses, and some other ecclesiastics, form two benches, the Suabian and Rhenish, each of which has only one vote.

In the college of princes, in which the number of votes amounts only to ninety-eight, the five secular members of the electoral college have, in virtue of their territorial properties, near twenty voices, seven of which belong to the elector of the Palatinate. The presidents of this college are alternately the archduke of Austria, and the archbishop of Saltzburg, each one day in turn. The Protestant
bishop

bishop of Lubeck has a separate transverse seat to himself, excepting that he is accompanied by the bishop of Osnaburg, when the latter is a Protestant.

The college of towns, in which the deputy of the city where the diet is held is president, consists of the deputies of the free imperial towns, fifty-one in number, divided into two classes or benches, the Suabian and Rhenish; in the former of which are thirty-seven votes, in the latter fourteen.

To one or two princes in each circle, stiled directors, the rules of the empire assign the office of occasionally convoking the states of the circle to deliberate on its particular concerns; but in Austria and the two Saxonies assemblies of this kind are never held. These directors are executive officers in the circles, as the Emperor is in the empire at large. To the archbishop of Mentz also is allowed the authority of summoning a general assembly of these princes and other officers of the circles; but this general assembly is very seldom convened, and will probably fall entirely into oblivion. The circles of Franconia, Bavaria, and Suabia, have particular assemblies among themselves for the regulation of the current coin, convened by the bishop of Bamberg, alternately at Nuremberg, Augsbourg, and Ratisbon. Frequent negotiations taking place among the circles of the Upper and Lower Rhine and Westphalia, these are denominated corresponding circles.

The supreme judicial courts of the empire are two in number, the Aulic Council, and the Imperial.

College of
Towns.

Circular
Diets.

High
Courts.

rial

rial Chamber. They are properly courts of appeal, but some litigated points are also brought before them in the first instance. Commonly the choice of the court, into which the suit is carried, is made by the plaintiff, but the cause cannot be transferred from the one to the other. The members of the Aulic Council, which depends entirely on the Emperor, and is held at Vienna, consist of a president, vice-president, and sixteen counsellors, divided into a bench of scholars and a bench of nobles, all nominated and paid by the Emperor; but of the counsellors six ought by rule to be Protestants. The members of the Imperial Chamber, the residence of which has been long fixed at Wetzlar, an imperial city in the circle of the Upper Rhine, consist of a first judge, and two presidents, the one a Catholic, the other a Protestant, nominated by the Emperor, and twenty-seven judges, called assessors, partly Catholics, and partly Protestants, appointed by the states of the empire. All the members of this court are paid by a tax levied on the states of the empire, which amounts to about 9000 pounds annually.

Laws.

The Roman law is in use throughout the judicial courts of Germany, excepting where it is limited or superseded by the statutes of the several states. These statutes are extremely various, as the states are numerous and separate. Among the laws which are conceived to be binding on the empire, or Germanic system, in general, are the conditions of the peace of Westphalia, and such acts of the general diet as are of a public nature. One of the most remarkable

remarkable of these acts, named the Golden Bull from a great imperial seal of gold affixed to it, the original of which statute is preserved at Frankfurt on the Maine, contains the rights of the electors, and the regulations which respect the election and coronation of the Emperor.

The force which belongs to the Emperor merely as head of the Germanic league, or holy Roman empire, as it is called, is so very contemptible, that, if he were not a prince possessed of a force properly his own, he would be utterly unable to execute the decrees of the general diet, or to enforce the observance of any order in the empire. His ordinary revenue, formerly considerable, consists at present of a moderate contribution paid by some of the imperial cities, of which so great a proportion is alienated under different titles, that scarcely 2000 pounds of it come into the imperial treasury. The extraordinary revenues, which are called Roman months, as having been formerly raised by monthly assessments for the maintenance of the troops who escorted the Emperor to Rome, the then place of his coronation, are subsidies voted by the diet on extraordinary occasions. A Roman month commonly consists of about 5000 pounds, and is levied in a certain proportion from all the circles, each of which is obliged to furnish its part or quota.

When war is decreed by the diet, each circle is in like manner obliged to furnish its share or contingent of troops to form the army of the empire, which ought to consist of 28,000 infantry and 12,000 cavalry. But this is altogether trifling in comparison

comparison of the collective power of the German states, if they were all united in one effort; their army, exclusively of all those countries, which, though subject to German princes, are not situate within the limits of Germany, amounting to 500,000 men, and their revenues, with the same limitation, to near eighteen millions of British pounds*.

Division,

This great empire, possessed of so vast an internal force, yet so little formidable from the want of a complete union of its parts, has been considered as divided into ten circles. But as the circle of Burgundy, which comprehended the Netherlands and the Dutchy of Burgundy, no longer forms a part of the Germanic system, the circles are reduced to the nine following; Austria, Bavaria, Suabia, Franconia, the circle of the Upper Rhine, the circle of the Lower Rhine, Westphalia, Lower Saxony, and Upper Saxony. The division of Germany into circles is altogether imperfect, not only because it excludes the kingdom of Bohemia, the dutchy of Silesia, and the marquifates of Lusatia and Moravia; but also because the lands of different circles lie in such confusion, that what is politically a part of one circle seems to make geographically a part of another. Thus, for instance, some territories which belong to the circles of Austria and of the

* Zimmerman, p. 107. For the government of Germany, see Busching, tome 6. p. 66—120. Riefbeck, vol. 1. p. 124—129. Zimmerman, p. 92—103. Puttar's Developement in three volumes. Clarke's Statistical View of Germany, London, 1790.

Upper Rhine are so intermixed with those of Suabia, that from their geographical situation they ought rather to be parts of the last-named circle. To particularise all the subdivisions of this extensive region seems quite unnecessary in this treatise, and for the enumeration of the various states, which compose this great and complicated system, I must refer the reader to the tables placed at the end of this description of Germany; giving particular accounts only of the principal states, and of a few others which may seem worthy of selection. Of all the circles the most divided is Suabia, as it contains no less than ninety-three states, thirty-one of which are free cities.

THE AUSTRIAN DOMINIONS,

Which at present compose a great and potent monarchy, consist of many territories both within and without the limits of the German empire. Those parts of the Austrian state, which are at the same time parts of Germany, are the kingdom of Bohemia, a part of Silesia, the marquisate of Moravia, and the whole circle of Austria. The countries, which belong to the Austrian monarchy without the limits of Germany, are Hungary, Transylvania, Illyria, part of the Italian region of Lombardy, part of the Netherlands, and the Polish provinces of Buckowina, Gallicia and Lodomiria.

This now potent monarchy owes its commencement to Rudolphus Count of Hapsburg, the founder

der of the Austrian family, who, being elevated to the imperial throne in the year 1273, procured for his family by a decree of the diet those territories of the circle of Austria which bear the names of Austria properly so called, Stiria, Carinthia, and Carniola. To this foundation of the Austrian greatness various accessions have since been occasionally made, particularly the kingdoms of Hungary and Bohemia, which, becoming vacant by the death of their King Lewis the Second, who fell in the battle of Mohacz fought against the Turks, chose Ferdinand Archduke of Austria for their King, in the year 1526, and have since become permanent possessions of the Austrian house. The title of Archduke, which had been first assumed by Rudolphus the Fourth in the year 1359, was established by Frederic the Third, who at the same time bore the imperial scepter, in 1453; and by Charles the Sixth in the year 1713 was enacted the *Pragmatic Sanction*, by which it was ordained, that all the possessions of the house of Austria should descend undivided, by right of primogeniture, to the eldest son, and in failure of male issue to the eldest daughter.

The religion established throughout the Austrian dominions is the Roman Catholic, with a toleration granted by Joseph the Second to other religions. The government is a hereditary monarchy; absolute in its German territories, except Tyrol, where no new taxes can be imposed without the consent of the states of the province; and absolute in its territories out of Germany, excepting that it is considerably limited in the Austrian Netherlands,
and

and suffers a degree of limitation also in Hungary, Transylvania, and Illyria. Of the various courts employed in the several departments of the administration of Government, nine of which are fixed at Vienna, the higher, or supreme court, is the council of state, the president of which is the sovereign himself, who, beside many other titles, bears those of King of Hungary, King of Bohemia, and Archduke of Austria. That of Archduke is peculiar to this monarchy, no such title being elsewhere in use. The heir of the Austrian dominions is accounted past minority, or capable of taking the reins of government, at the age of fourteen as King of Bohemia, and at the age of eighteen as Archduke of Austria.

The German dominions of the Austrian monarchy seem to contain an area of about 47 millions of English, or above 29 millions of Irish acres, and a number of inhabitants not much below eight millions; but the areas of all the Austrian possessions taken together, both in Germany and elsewhere, are probably not less than 150 millions of English, or 92 millions of Irish acres, and their inhabitants are supposed to amount to the number of near 20 millions; a number far inferior to that which might be maintained in these countries, some of which are fertile to an extraordinary degree. The annual revenue of this powerful monarchy, at present one of the most formidable in Europe, is estimated at 12 millions of British pounds. The debts of the crown, which, before the commencement of the late war against the Turks, amounted to about
17 millions,

17 millions, have since that period been greatly augmented. As the countries, which belong to this monarchy, have no maritime coasts of any considerable extent, nor more than two seaports of any consequence, that of Trieste on the Adriatic, and that of Ostend on the sea of Britain, its naval force is but small, consisting in 1789 of five or six frigates; but its army, probably the best disciplined in the world next to that of Prussia, is reckoned to be 300,000 in number, of which about 50,000 are said to be cavalry †.

THE PRUSSIAN DOMINIONS,

Like those of Austria, lie partly in Germany, and partly beyond its boundaries, chiefly between the country of Lusatia and the Baltic sea, on both sides of the Oder, and for some way also on both sides of the Elbe, beside some territories in Westphalia and elsewhere; enjoying, in general, the advantages of inland navigation, and greatly improved by the industry of the inhabitants, which has been excited by the attention of government; but possessed of very little natural fertility, and forming by no means, on the whole, a compact state; many territories having no immediate conjunction with the main body, and being little able to assist, or to be assisted by, the rest in time of war. The intra-

† For accounts of the Austrian monarchy, see Busching, from p. 522. tome 5. Zimmermann, p. 128—137. Rieselbeck, vol. 1. p. 123—129. Puttar, vol. 3. tables, p. 2—10.

germanic territories of the Prussian monarchy, which lie in continuity, are the march of Brandenburg, the principality of Halberstadt, the dutchy of Magdeburg, all Silesia except the southern part which belongs to Austria, the county of Glatz in Bohemia, and Pomerania except the western part which is subject to the King of Sweden. Detached from these lie in Westphalia the dutchies of Minden and Cleve, the principalities of Ostfriesland and Mæurs, and the counties of Ravensberg, Tecklenberg; Lingen, and Mark. The extragermanic consist almost entirely of the Polish country of Prussia, excepting the dutchy of Guelders in the Netherlands, and the small united principalities of Neuchâtel and Valengin, in Switzerland.

Brandenburg, which is the principal German possession of this monarchy, and the country honoured with the royal residence, has undergone a variety of revolutions, the recital of which would be very uninteresting and tedious to the generality of British readers. Even as early as the time of Charlemagne, princes with the title of Count reigned over part of this country. About the year 974 the title of Count was changed for that of Margrave, or Marquis. In 1525 a part of the Polish province of Prussia was given as a hereditary dutchy, by an agreement with the King of Poland, to Albert, a prince of the house of Brandenburg, who had fourteen years before been elected grand master of the Teutonic order of knights, an order which had been instituted in the year 1192, in the times of the Crusades, for the purpose of waging war against the

Mohammedans, but which being afterwards commissioned to convert to Christianity by force of arms the Pagan people of Prussia, had completed the conquest of that country about the middle of the twelfth century. By the right of primogeniture, which early took place in this family, this dutchy devolved, in process of time, to the electoral or chief branch of the house of Brandenburg, and all dependance on the kingdom of Poland ceased, in form as well as in fact, in 1657. Other territories accrued in different ways to this growing state, and, in the beginning of the year 1701, the Margrave of Brandenburg assumed the title of King of Prussia with the name of Frederic the First. He was succeeded in 1713 by his son Frederic William, who considerably augmented the strength of the Prussian monarchy; but in 1740 commenced the most glorious, and really astonishing reign of Frederic the Great, son and successor of the last; a man of consummate genius as a warrior, politician, and legislator; who added to his dominion the Silesian territories, Glatz, and a part of Poland; who defended his possessions against the combined powers of Austria, Russia, France, and Sweden; who simplified in an extraordinary manner the proceedings of the courts of law; and established, on the whole, a system of administration altogether unparalleled in the records of history.

The German dominions of this monarchy contain above 4 millions of souls, on a collective area of about 29 millions of English, or above 17 millions of Irish acres. The number of inhabitants in

all

all the Prussian territories, both within and without the Germanic empire, may somewhat exceed 6 millions; and the areas of all these territories taken together, may be above 47 millions of English, or near 30 millions of Irish acres.

With a great inferiority to some of the chief powers of Europe in respect of territorial extent, fertility, and number of people, this monarchy is conceived to be a full match in war for any potentate on earth; the institutions of the Great Frederic being of such a nature, as to enable the body politic to exert every nerve and sinew, so as to produce all the momentum, which a state of that magnitude can possibly be brought by human art to effect, excepting so far as the co-operation of the parts may be impeded by the incompactness of the whole.

Though the Prussian dominions are not without sea-ports, and though, by their numerous manufactures and the general industry of the people, they have a very considerable foreign commerce; yet, as their natural and political situation renders it far less expedient to maintain a force by sea than by land, their armed navy is of small moment; but their army is, by reason of its admirable discipline, the most formidable in the world, consisting of about 200,000 men, of whom 40,000 are cavalry. Notwithstanding the maintenance of this numerous and well appointed army, together with various other expences of government, and notwithstanding that the royal revenue scarcely exceeds 3 millions and an half of British pounds annually, such

is the system of œconomy hitherto pursued in this extraordinary state, that it not only is free from debt, but has even vast sums deposited in the royal treasury, in reserve for the support of future wars.

With a most ample toleration of all other sects, Calvinism is the religion of the court, and the established mode of worship in the March of Brandenburg; but Lutheranism has more followers in this and other territories of this monarchy; besides that Romanists are in some parts very numerous. The monarch, beside a multitude of other titles, is stiled King of Prussia, Margrave of Brandenburg, and Sovereign Duke of Silesia. His arms for the kingdom of Prussia are a black spread eagle in a field of silver with a crown of gold on its head. The orders of knighthood are two, that of the black eagle, and that of merit, of the former of which the King is always grand master. The monarchy is hereditary, and, notwithstanding certain forms, which might seem to indicate liberty in the subjects, the power of the monarch is absolute; excepting that in the united principalities of Neuchatel and Valengin, which are in fact parts of the Swiss confederacy, he is scarcely more than a nominal sovereign†. But notwithstanding the absolute sway of the sovereign throughout the rest of his dominions, the system of government hitherto exercised in this realm is perhaps the best ever yet reduced to practice for the general happiness of the subjects and good of the state. I shall not attempt to enter into a detail of

† See vol. i. of this work, p. 330, 331.

this excellent system, the establishment of the admirable Frederic, the head and main-spring of which is the king's privy council, to which all the other courts, ecclesiastical, civil, and military, are subordinate †.

THE ELECTORATE OF SAXONY.

Which, next after the powers of Austria and Prussia, appears to be the most potent of the German states, extends on both sides of the Elbe, fertile and populous to a considerable degree, and comprehending, beside some other territories, a great part of the circle of Upper Saxony.

The stock, whence the present electoral family derives its descent, were the Margraves of Misnia, one of whom, stiled Frederic the Warlike, became elector of Saxony in the year 1422. By the joint succession of two grandsons of this prince, the family became divided into two branches, the Ernestine and the Albertine; the former of which possessed the electoral dignity, until Charles the Fifth, Emperor of Germany, having put the Elector John Frederic under the ban of the empire in 1547, transferred the electorate to Duke Maurice of the Albertine branch, in which line it still remains.

The number of souls in this electorate is calculated to be about 1,900,000; the area near 10 millions of English, or 6 millions of Irish acres; the

† Busching, vol. 9. p. 524—808. Puttar, vol. 3. tables p. 12—20. Riefbeck, vol. 2. p. 150—167. Gillies' View of Frederic II. Clarke's Stat. View, p. 138—170.

revenue of the elector above 1,100,000 pounds yearly; the debts of the state near 3,000,000 of pounds; and the army about 25,000 men, above 5000 of which number are cavalry.

The Romish religion is professed by the court since the year 1697, when the Elector Augustus became a convert to that faith, in order to qualify himself to be elected King of Poland; but Lutheranism, which had its first rise in this electorate, is still the established religion, and is professed by most of the subjects. The Elector, who, beside other titles, is styled Duke of Saxony, is a hereditary monarch, but more limited, according to the accounts of some German writers, than any other prince of the Germanic system; for no alteration can be made in the laws without the consent of the diet, or assembly of the states of the electorate, which assembly also regulates the taxes, the debts of the state, and other matters of the like nature, and watches for the maintenance of the established religion. This assembly is composed of three orders, or classes. The first class consists of three abbots, or prelates, as representatives of the clergy, and four counts as representatives of the higher nobility, and of the universities of Leipzig and Wittenburg. The second is formed by the gentry, or lower nobility, of the seven circles into which the electorate is divided; each of whom must be of noble descent, and be possessed of a freehold estate; but however great their properties may be, their votes are only personal, each having no more than one. The third consists of the deputies of towns,

towns, 102 in number. The diet is ordinarily held only once in six years, in the electoral palace, and in the presence of the Elector; but a deputation or committee of it assembles once in two years, to deliberate concerning any extraordinary cases which come before it §.

THE ELECTORATE OF PALATINE- BAVARIA,

A state, which ought to be at least equal in power to that of Saxony, consists of the dutchy of Bavaria on both sides of the Danube, the Upper Palatinate on the borders of Bohemia, and the Lower Palatinate on the banks of the Rhine and Neckar, together with some other less considerable territories.

The Bavarian dutchy and the lower Palatinate, after having remained some time united under the government of one prince, became, at the death of Lewis the Severe in the year 1294, the distinct properties of the two sons of this prince, and continued above three centuries quite separate states: but, the Bavarian line becoming extinct by the death of Maximilian Joseph, Elector of Bavaria, in the year 1777, the Bavarian dominions devolved by hereditary right to the Count Palatine of the Rhine, or elector of the Lower Palatinate, who thus united these territories to his former possessions. This

§ See for Saxony, Bulching, tome 9. p. 344—394. Pustar, vol. 3. tables p. 26—29. Riesbeck, vol. 2. p. 22, 23. Clarke, p. 187—201.

union,

union, however, was not accomplished without a most formidable opposition; for Joseph the Second, Emperor of Germany, took with a military force possession of the Lower Bavaria and Upper Palatinate, under pretence that they were vacant fiefs, which reverted, by the extinction of the Bavarian line, to the house of Austria. But the magnanimous Frederic the Great of Prussia opposed this claim with such effect, that the Emperor was obliged to restore all to the rightful heir, excepting a district between the rivers Danube, Inn, and Saltza, after one extraordinary campaign, in which the Emperor, with much more numerous forces, remained on the defensive, and could not be drawn, by the most masterly, and sometimes even hazardous, movements of the Prussian army, to try the fortune of a battle ||.

The prince of this electorate bears, among other titles, those of Duke of the Upper and Lower Bavaria, and Count Palatine of the Rhine. He resides at Mannheim in the Lower Palatinate, and may be considered as an absolute monarch, since no assembly of states is held in the Palatinate, and though a deputation of those of Bavaria is frequently convened at Munich, it seems to have no efficient power against the authority of the Elector. The Roman Catholic has always been the established mode of worship in Bavaria, but the Protestant persuasion predominated in the Lower Palatinate, until, by

|| See the Annual Register for 1778, also Puttar, vol. 3. book 13. cap. 6.

the extinction of the line of Palatine-Simmern in 1685, the house of Neuburg obtained possession of this principality, in which the Protestants have since been so oppressed that vast numbers have emigrated to North America and elsewhere. Since the Romish faith is established on intolerant principles throughout this electorate, it cannot be expected to be well inhabited, notwithstanding the great fertility of most of its territories; the areas of all which taken together, exceed 14 millions of English, or 8 millions of Irish acres, and yet the number of souls in all the dominions of the electorate amounts to little more than 1,700,000. The revenue of the Elector is computed at above 900,000 pounds yearly, his debts at above 3,500,000 pounds, some say 6,000,000, and the army, which he might maintain, at 20,000 men, though scarcely 7000 are said to be actually on the military establishment ||,

THE ELECTORATE OF HANOVER,

Or, as it is also called, perhaps with more strict propriety, the Electorate of Brunswick-Lunenbug, consists of the dutchies of Bremen and Lauenburg, and the principalities of Lunenburg, Calenburg, and Grubenhagen in the circle of Lower Saxony; the principality of Verden, and the counties of Hoya, Diepholz, Spiegelberg, and Hallermund, in

|| Busching, tome 8. p. 101—140, and tome 9. p. 21—72.
Puttar, vol. 3. tables p. 22—25. Rielbeck, vol. 1. p. 91—109.
Clarke, p. 171—186.

Westphalia;

Westphalia; and the county of Hohenstein, in Upper Saxony; beside the counties of Bentheim and Sternberg in Westphalia, which are mortgaged to the state of Hanover, and not yet redeemed. These territories lie mostly, but not every where, in continuity; extending chiefly between the Weser and the Elbe, and partly also on the western side of the former river; well situate for commerce, but of a very infertile soil, abounding in sand-heaths and other irreclaimable sorts of ground, insomuch that, though the aggregate of all these dominions may contain in area above 9 millions of English, or 5 millions and a half of Irish acres, yet the whole number of inhabitants seems hardly to exceed 750,000, though some have rated them even at a million. The annual revenue arising to the prince from the electorate is very variously estimated, but may perhaps amount to 400,000 pounds; and scarcely less than 20,000 men are on the military establishment.

The house of Brunswick, to whom this electorate belongs, is one of the most illustrious in the world, being the offspring of the great and celebrated Guelphick family, whose dominions in the twelfth century extended from the frontiers of Denmark to the middle of Italy, comprehending, among many other German territories, those of Austria, Saxony, and Bavaria. This vast extent of dominion, however, had no long duration, for Henry the Superb, and his son and successor, Henry the Lion, having been successively put under the ban of the empire, the former in 1138, the latter in 1180, al-

1180, almost all their territories were seized and retained by different princes, nothing being left to the former possessor but the countries of Brunswick and Lunenburg, which have ever since remained in possession of the family. Emblematical of this terrible catastrophe are the arms of the house, which are the picture of a beautiful horse torn in pieces by ravenous beasts and birds of prey, which leave nothing undevoured but the heart. The family of Brunswick became afterwards divided into several branches, two of which are still extant; the one the line of Brunswick-Lunenburg, or of Zell, which is the electoral branch; the other that of Brunswick-Wolfenbittel, whose territorial possessions are far less considerable than the electorate, which is the property of the former. Beside some augmentation of territory, much has been added to the dignity of the house of Brunswick-Lunenburg in the present century; the then reigning prince being established a member of the electoral college in 1708, and being also, to the great advantage of the British islands, and the protection of the Protestant religion in general, invited to the royal throne of Britain in 1714, under the name of George the First.

The prince of this electorate is stiled Duke of Brunswick and of Lunenburg, arch-treasurer of the Holy Roman Empire, and Elector. The government may be considered as an absolute monarchy, notwithstanding that the several territories, of which his dominions are composed, have their particular assemblies of states or diets. The Elector being, since the year 1714, King of Great Britain, where he

he resides, the supreme direction of affairs is committed to a court of regency resident in the city of Hanover. The Lutheran religion is established throughout this electorate, and professed by a great majority of its inhabitants ||.

H E S S E;

A country well known in Britain from its connexions with the British court, extends from the river Fulda to the Rhine and Main, containing in its aggregate area about 4,800,000 English, or above 2,500,000 Irish acres, and inhabited by about 750,000 people. Hesse was given with the title of Landgraviate in the year 1292, by the Emperor Adolphus of Nassau, to Henry, a descendant of the ducal house of Brabant. Of the many families, into which the descendents of this prince branched in process of time, five are yet extant in Hesse; two of which, that of Hesse-Cassel, and that of Hesse-Darmstadt, are the reigning families; and the other three, that of Hesse-Rothenburg, that of Hesse-Philippsthal, and that of Hesse-Homburg, hold their lands in appanage, under the territorial sovereignty of the reigning families, but with certain restrictions and privileges. Lutheranism is the established religion of Hesse-Darmstadt; Calvinism that of Hesse-Cassel, and of the appanaged estates of Philippsthal and Homburg; and Romanism that of Rothenburg.

|| Busching. tome 1c. p. 368—517. Puttar, vol. 1. p. 207—218. vol. 3. tables, p. 30—33. Riefbeck, vol. 2. p. 255—256.

The

The two Landgraviates of Hesse-Cassel and Hesse-Darmstadt are distinct states, independent the one of the other; but are connected by a variety of concerns, which belong to both in common. Thus, to bring only two instances out of seventeen, which might be adduced, both Landgraviates have a common court of appeal, held alternately six months at Marburg in the territories of the former, and six months at Gießen in the dominions of the latter; and the general diet of Hesse is an assembly of the states of both Landgraviates, convened to deliberate for their common interests; but this assembly is very seldom convoked, which is also the case of the particular diet of each Landgraviate; these assemblies being summoned only at the pleasure of the Landgraves, who seem to govern almost absolutely; yet these diets are not without influence, as we may observe in this instance, that when the heir of Hesse-Cassel, in 1754, declared his conversion to the Romish religion, the diet summoned by his father, the then reigning Landgrave, took effectual measures for the protection of the established faith; putting even the education of the children of this convert out of their father's power.

The dominions of the Landgrave of Hesse-Cassel contain in area near 3,500,000 English acres, and the number of his subjects amounts to about 450,000, of whom above 20,000 inhabit the city of Cassel the capital. His annual revenue seems not less than 270,000 pounds, beside considerable subsidies received from Britain. His army is said to consist of

11,000

11,000 men, but above 20,000 of this prince's subjects have served under British pay.

The Landgraviate of Hesse-Darmstadt is inferior to the former, more in its territorial extent than in its population; the areas of its territories not much exceeding 1,300,000 English acres, while its inhabitants are rated at 300,000, of whom near 10,000 are contained in the city of Darmstadt, the residence of the Landgrave. The revenue of this prince seems to be about 140,000 pounds yearly, and his army near 5000 men*.

THE DUTCHY OF WIRTEMBERG,

Watered in the middle by the Neckar, and rendered uneven in some parts by branches of the Alb and Black-forest, is a country of remarkable fertility, containing about 2,600,000 English, or 1,600,000 Irish acres, and near 600,000 inhabitants, of whom above 20,000 dwell in Stutgard the capital. From the beginning of the twelfth century we find this country governed by counts, until the year 1495, when, by the favour of Maximilian the First, Emperor of Germany, this title was changed for that of Duke. The religion of the court is Romanism since the year 1712, when Duke Charles Alexander became a convert to the Romish church; but Lutheranism is professed by most of the subjects, and is still the established religion of the state. The power of the prince, whose title is

* Busching; tome 8. p. 215—309. Puttar, vol. 3. tables, p. 50, 51. Rieselbeck, vol. 2. p. 277.

Duke of Wirtemberg and Teck, seems to be in some considerable degree circumscribed by the diet, which consists of 14 prelates, or superior clergy, and 68 deputies of towns and bailliages. This assembly is rarely convened, but a deputation of it, representative of the whole, composed of 4 prelates, and 12 deputies of towns, subdivided into two committees, is held twice or thrice in the year at Stutgard, and sits during from four to eight weeks each time. The yearly revenue of the Duke may be near 300,000 pounds, and he has had in time of war 14,000 men on his military establishment †.

THE DUTCHY OF MECKLENBURG,

Extending from the Baltic sea to the March of Brandenburg, must be in some degree interesting to a British reader, as having given to Britain the present Queen, who has had the singular felicity of proving invulnerable to calumny, in a nation most sagacious to discover subjects of censure in persons of eminence. The country abounds in lakes, is watered by many rivers, among which is the Elbe, is diversified with hills and woods, is fertile in many parts, but in general neither well cultivated nor populous. It is supposed to contain near four millions of English, or above 2,400,000 Irish acres; but, at the utmost, not above 300,000, or, according to some accounts, 220,000 inhabitants. Out of this calculation are excepted the town of Wismar

† Busching, tome 8. p. 506—581. Puttar, vol. 3. tables, p. 48, 49. Rieselbeck, vol. 1. p. 21—23.

and a territory about it, which, though situate in this dutchy, belong to the King of Sweden.

This dutchy appears to have been one of the countries occupied by the Vandals in the early centuries of the Christian era, and, after the migration of that people southward, to have come into the possession of Wendish, or Venedic, tribes of Slavonian race, who succeeded the Vandals in these parts, and extended their settlements from the Vistula to the Elbe. The Wendish kingdom of the Obotrites, thus called from a principal clan inhabiting this dutchy, was drawn into an alliance in the eighth century with Charlemagne; and their King Witzan, or Witzlaus, was slain in battle in the year 795, from whom the present ducal family of Mecklenburg is descended. The Obotrites were totally subdued by the Guelphic Prince Henry the Lion in 1164, who deprived their chief of his royal title, and seems to have introduced many Saxon colonists into the country. To the conquered prince was restored by the conqueror a part of his dominions, and his successors bore the title of Lords of Mecklenburg until the year 1348, when the title of Duke was conferred on them by the Emperor Charles the Fourth. Of this most illustrious ducal family two reigning branches now subsist, that of Mecklenburgh-Schwerin, and that of Mecklenburg-Strelitz; between whom a dispute arose at the end of the last century, on the extinction of another branch called the line of Gustrow; but all matters were amicably settled between them by the convention of Hamburg in 1701, and a firmer union was established by

by a convention of their subjects in 1755 at Rostock.

Mecklenburg, though divided between two sovereigns, is considered as one dutchy, because it has one common diet, one common court of appeal, and one common consistory, or spiritual court, for the regulation of matters which pertain to religion. The country is divided into the three circles of Mecklenburg properly so called, Wenden, and Stargard. The two former belong to the Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin; the last to the Duke of Mecklenburg-Strelitz. The capital of the first of these circles, since the cession of Wismar to Sweden, is Parchim; that of the second Gustrow; and that of the third New-Brandenburg; but the most considerable town, and the only seaport in the whole dutchy, is Rostock, which contains about 10,000 inhabitants.

The diet of the dutchy, which consists of the nobility and the deputies of the towns, may be summoned at any time by the sovereign, but is commonly convoked annually in autumn, in order to settle the yearly contributions for the service of government, or to regulate other matters of public concern. Its places of meeting are alternately the towns of Sternberg and Malchin. A month before the time of meeting, the Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin summons the states of his two circles, acquainting them at the same time with the principal subjects of debate, and sends to the Duke of Strelitz the same information, requesting him to summon the states of Stargard. At Rostock resides a

committee representative of the diet, consisting commonly of nine persons, who are two provincial counsellors, a deputy of the nobility of each of the three circles, one deputy of the town of Rostock, and a deputy of each of the three capitals of the circles. For the common court of appeal established at Gustrow, the Dukes appoint the president, the vice-presidents, and four assessors: one ordinary and four extraordinary assessors are sent by the nobility; and the rest of the assessors are chosen by the principality of Schwerin, the university of Rostock, and the town of Rostock. The common court of consistory is fixed at Rostock, and is entirely dependent on the Duke of Schwerin.

Lutheranism is established throughout all Mecklenburg, and very few professors of any other faith are to be found in this duchy. The two dukes are accounted the most limited princes in Germany, except the Elector of Saxony; yet the peasants are feudal slaves, affixed to the soil, and transferable as cattle from proprietor to proprietor: their condition, however, is not so bad as we might suppose, the nobility of the country being generally enlightened by literature, and consequently humane. The dominions of the two ducal princes are very unequal; those of the Duke of Schwerin containing according to the most probable calculation, above three millions of English acres, and near 200,000 inhabitants; while the number of English acres in the Duke of Strelitz's dominions are not supposed to exceed 800,000, and that of his subjects to be scarcely more than 50,000. The different accounts

counts of their annual revenues cannot easily be reconciled ; perhaps that of the former may be 90,000 pounds, and that of the latter 30,000 ; and yet both dukes together are said to be able, in case of necessity, to raise and maintain an army of 14,000 men. They are prudent enough, however, to keep but a very small military establishment. Their troops are clothed in blue uniform, and trained to the Prussian discipline †.

THE ELECTORATE OF MENTZ,

The greatest ecclesiastical state, next after the Roman Popedom, in the Christian world, owes its first origin to Winifried, or Boniface, an Englishman, the great apostle of the Germans, who fixed his seat at Mentz in the year 745, and established the constitution of the Archiepiscopal see in 751. To the original establishment of Boniface many additions have since been made, and the dominions of the elector consist of several dispersed territories, the aggregate of which seem to contain in area about 2,250,000 English, or near 1,400,000 Irish acres, with above 340,000 souls, of whom about 2,400 are said to be clerical persons.

The nobles of what is properly called the archbishopric of Mentz are immediate nobility of the empire ; and certain privileges are allowed to some towns and districts ; but, since none of the provin-

† Nugent, vol. 2. let. 14—15. Busching, tome 10. p. 692—747. Rielbeck, vol. 2. p. 204, 205. Puttar, vol. 3. tables, p. 46, 47.

ces of this electorate, except Eichsfeld, has an assembly of states, or diet, the temporal influence of this spiritual prince appears not to be much limited, except by the great chapter, without whose concurrence he seems to have little power. The clergy of the archbishopric are divided into three chapters. In the first, or great chapter, which consists of five mitred prelates, and nineteen other members, called capitulars, is lodged exclusively the right of electing the archbishop, who after his election is obliged to pay a large sum to the Pope for a bull of confirmation, and for the robe, or pallium, with which he is invested. He is stiled Archbishop of the Holy See of Mentz, Archchancellor of Germany, and Elector of the Holy Empire. His revenue amounts to about 170,000 pounds annually, and his permanent military establishment is said to consist of 2,200 men §.

THE IMPERIAL CITY OF HAMBURG,

The greatest and best governed of all the free towns of Germany, is believed to have derived its origin from a fortress erected there on the northern bank of the Elbe, to repress the incursions of the Wendish nations, by Charlemagne in the year 808. The town gradually augmenting under the protection of the fort, obtained in process of time some privileges, and at length purchased its full emancipation from its territorial sovereigns, the Counts of

§ Busching, tome 8. p. 5—46. Riesbeck, vol. 2. p. 351.
352. Puttar, vol. 3. tables, p. 34, 35.

Holstein. It underwent, however, many revolutions, nor was its constitution completed until the year 1708, when, by means of imperial commissioners, sent thither on account of domestic dissensions, the form of government, which it enjoys at present, was established. Though Hamburg was declared a free imperial city, or an immediate state of the empire in the year 1618, yet the Kings of Denmark, as Dukes of Holstein, have claimed a territorial jurisdiction over it, and, under that pretence, have exacted large sums from the city; but in 1768, this claim has been relinquished, and the town taken under the immediate protection of the empire. The whole territory of this commonwealth seems hardly to contain 27,000 English, or 16,000 Irish acres, excepting that lands of a somewhat larger extent belong in common to this town and to Lubeck. Its public revenue is about 170,000 pounds annually, and its military force little more than 2000 men. The number of souls, which belong to it, both in town and country, seems not much to exceed 110,000; almost all of whom, excepting about 4000 Jews, are professors of Lutheranism, which is the established religion, to the prohibition of the public exercise of every other mode of Christian worship, except in the chapels of foreign ministers.

Hamburg, with respect to its government, being held to be a just mean between the extremes of aristocracy and democracy, is accounted the best model of a commonwealth ever yet known to subsist. The executive power is vested in the senate, or supreme tribunal, in subordination to which are several judicial

dicial courts. The senate consists of 36 members, who elect by ballot out of the principal families persons to fill the places which become vacant in their body. The 36 senators are 4 burgomasters, 4 syndics, 24 counsellors, and 4 secretaries, the chief person of whom is called a prothonotary. All the senators must be graduates of approved learning, excepting that one burgomaster, and 13 counsellors must be merchants. The burgomasters and counsellors alone have suffrages in the senate; the rest having only the privilege of giving their opinions.

The legislative authority resides ultimately in the burghers, or burgeses; out of whom is formed a committee, or deputation, of 180 persons. Of these, 15, called chief elders, or aldermen, elected by the 5 wards, or parishes, into which the city is divided, three from each ward, constitute a distinct body called the first college. These 15, joined with 45 others, who are elected, 9 from each ward, form a college of 60; and these 60, associated with 120 more, chosen 24 from each ward, constitute the whole deputation, or college of 180. Proposals of laws are laid by the senate before the 15 aldermen, and afterwards before the two other colleges, but can receive their confirmation only from the general assembly of burgeses; without whose approbation no new law can be enacted, nor new tax imposed. This general assembly is convoked by the senate, and in it every man possessed of a house in town and a certain sum of money, or a freehold of a certain value without incumbrance of debt, has

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a right

a right to appear and to give his vote. The five wards deliberate separately; the majority decides in each ward, and the majority of the wards determines the question. The deputation of 180, together with 30 assessors, six from each ward, must attend on this occasion. The management of the treasury is committed to ten burgessees, two from each ward, one returned by election, the other by lot; each of whom must vacate his place for the election of another in six years after his admission ||.

T H E G E R M A N I S L A N D S,

Lying partly in the British, and partly in the Baltic sea, consist of several of very small extent, particularly on the coast of East Friesland, and of a few somewhat more considerable, as Usedom and Wollin at the mouth of the Oder; Rugen, at no great distance from these; Femeren on the coast of Holstein; and Heyligeland opposite to the mouth of the Elbe.

W O L L I N,

Severed by an extremely narrow channel from the main land of Prussian Pomerania, of a low surface, and subject to the annoyances of inundations of water, and drifts of sand, is about 20 English miles in circuit, and belongs to the King of Prussia. Its principal town, situate next the main land, bears

|| Busching, tome 11. p. 153—159. Nugent, vol. 1. let. 2. Puttar, vol. 3. tables, p. 71. Riefbeck, vol. 2. p. 224—228.

the same name with the island, and contains about 2000 souls *.

U S E D O M,

Situate also quite close to the Pomeranian coast, subject to the King of Prussia, and having for its capital a small town of the same name with the island, extends in length about 23 English miles, and 12 in breadth in one place, but is elsewhere very narrow †.

R U G E N,

The greatest of the German islands, parted from the continent by a freight little more than a mile over, extends near 30 English miles in breadth, as well as length; but is very deeply penetrated by inlets of the sea, which form several islets and peninsulas. It boasts a fertile soil, and exports corn; but it feels the inconvenience of a scarcity of wood, and imports for fuel, turf from the mainland. It belongs to the King of Sweden, as an appendage of Swedish Pomerania, and has for its capital Bergen, a small open town, situate near the center of the island, and containing little more than 1400 souls †.

* Busching, tome 10. p. 134—136. Puttar, vol. 3. tables, p. 15.

† Busching, tome 10. p. 133—134.

‡ Busching, tome 10. p. 108—117. Puttar, vol. 3. tables, p. 66.

G E R M A N Y.

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F E M E R E N,

Or Femarn, separated by a very narrow strait from the shore of Holstein, belongs to the King of Denmark, and seems to extend about 13 English miles in length with a breadth of five. It is said to be destitute, not only of rivers, but even of springs; insomuch that the inhabitants, depending on rain for their supplies of water, are often much distressed in the summer months. Hares are almost the only species of game found in the island. It contains no town of any consequence: one, which is denominated Burg, seems to be the first in rank §.

H E L I G E L A N D,

Or Helgoland, 24 miles distant from the mouth of the Elbe, is famous among seamen on account of a light-house, which is maintained on the most elevated part of the island for the direction of mariners, at the expence of the city of Hamburg, by permission of the King of Denmark, to whom the island belongs. It is said to have been, in former ages, the scene of worship of a Pagan deity, and to have thence received its name, which in the English language signifies Holy Land. It is also said to have been heretofore of far greater extent than it is now found to be, and to have been reduced to its present small area by successive inundations of the sea, the last of which took place in

§ Busching, tome 1. p. 288—290.

the year 1649. At present a channel called the Waal, navigable at high water, divides the isle into two nearly equal parts, the higher named the cliff, and the lower termed the Downs. The higher part, about an Irish mile long, a quarter of a mile broad, and 216 feet above the surface of the sea in the most elevated point, consists of a solid reddish rock covered with a clayey soil above three feet deep. Up the side of this rock is an easy ascent by a broad wooden stair-case of 180 steps, at the head of which is the governor's house, and on the ridge of the rock are planted the artillery for the defence of the island. The lower part of the isle, fenced against the fury of the sea by a mole, consists of sandy downs and rocky grounds, on which the fishermen erect their huts. For the sustenance of the sheep and cows in winter, hay is imported from the continent; and not a horse is to be found in all the island. It has two good harbours, one in the southern, the other in the northern side. Its inhabitants, about 2000 in number, believed to be the descendants of the ancient Frisians, preserve their old peculiar laws and customs, never emigrate from their island, and subsist by the fishery, which is the sole occupation of the men; while not only the whole domestic œconomy, but the entire business of agriculture, without the assistance of plough, harrow, or cart, is the province of the women ||.

|| Busching, tome 1. p. 270—275. Nugent, vol. 1. let. 1.

TABLES

TABLES OF GERMANY.

IN the following tables the areas given in square geographical miles, sixty to a degree, are rather intended to express the sizes of territories relatively among themselves, than absolutely; the computations having been made originally in German miles, which are here reduced to geographical.

Grand Divisions of Germany.	Areas in square Geog. Miles.	Number of Inhabitants.
Circle of Austria	34,320	4,180,000
— Bavaria	16,320	1,600,000
— Franconia	7,744	1,000,000
— Suabia	11,664	1,800,000
— Lower Rhine	7,328	1,100,000
— Upper Rhine	8,000	1,000,000
— Westphalia	20,000	2,300,000
— Lower Saxony	20,480	2,100,000
— Upper Saxony	32,000	3,700,000
Bohemia	15,376	2,266,000
Moravia	6,336	1,337,000
Silesia	11,520	1,800,000
Lusatia	2,880	400,000

Out of the above divisions are excluded the territories of the immediate nobility of the empire, divided into three circles, thirty-three lordships, and some other lordships which are governed in common by more than one noble family, and which are called immediate villages.

TABLES OF GERMANY,

DIVISIONS OF THE CIRCLE OF AUSTRIA,

ALL SUBJECT TO THE HOUSE OF AUSTRIA.

	Sq. Geog. Miles.	Numb. of People.	Towns,	Inhabitants.
Archduchy of Austria, or lower Austria	10,192	1,685,000	Vienna - Vienna Neustadt Crem Kloster-Neuburg Lintz - Wels En Steyr - Braunau Ried	260,000 5,000 15,200 1,500
Stiria	7,056	1,585,000	Gratz - Judenburg Eiseners	35,000
Carinthia	3,040	290,000	Clagenfurth - Villach Saint Veit Gurk	7,000
Carniola	3,524	400,000	Laybach -	9,500
Austrian Fraul, or Goritia	965	115,000	Gortz - Gradisca Idria -	9,000 1,900
The Littorale, or Government of Trieste	144	21,000	Trieste Fiume - Aquilaia -	14,000 6,000 2,815
Tyrol	6,816	560,000	Inspruck - Hall - Bolzen - Roveredo - Bregen	8,205 4,165 7,000 6,000
Trent			Trent -	8,000
Brixen			Brixen -	3,800

TABLES

DIVISIONS OF THE CIRCLE OF BAVARIA.

	Sq. Geog. Miles.	Number of People.	Towns.	Inhabitants.
Archbishopric of Salzburg	3,840	250,000	Salzburg	24,000
Bishopric of Freyfin- gen			Freyfingen	
— Passau	240		Passau	
— Regensburg				
Marq. of Bertolfga- den		3,000		
Abbey of Saint Emeran				
— Lower Munster				
— Upper Munster				
Dutchy of Bavaria	9,216	990,000	Munich	38,000
			Straubingen	8,790
			Landshut	5,700
			Donawerth	3,000
			Burghaufen	3,500
Upper Palatinate, including Leuch- tenberg Landgra- viate	2,080	175,000	Amberg	4,463
			Auerbach	1,340
Sultzbach Principa- lity	416	43,000	Neumarkt	2,445
			Sultzbach	3,000
			Weyden	3,000
Neuburg Dutchy	832	92,000	Neuburg	5,300
Sternstein County				

The ecclesiastical states above-named belong to their respective spiritual princes, Sternstein to its Count, Bertolfgaden to its Marquis, and almost all the rest of the circle to the Elector of Bavaria.

TABLES OF GERMANY.

DIVISIONS OF FRANCONIA.

	Sq. Geog. Miles.	Number of People.	Towns,	Inhabitants*
Bishopric of Bam- berg	1,040	180,000	Bamberg	20,000
			Forchheim	
			Kronach	
—Wurtzburg	1,520	200,000	Wurtzburg	16,000
			Kissingen	
			Kitzingen	
—Eichstedt	—	—	Eichstedt	
Mergentheim	—	—	Mergentheim	
Principality of Bay- reuth	1,040	185,000	Bayreuth	10,000
			Erlangen	8,500
			Culmbach	2,665
			Hoff on the Saale	5,000
—Anspach	1,280	—	Anspach	10,200
			Schwabach	6,000
			Furth	
			Gunzenhausen	
County of Schwar- zenburg				
—Wertheim	—	—	Wertheim	
—Hohenlohe	—	—	Oehringen	
—Castell	—	—		

The most powerful prince of this circle is the Marquis of Bayreuth and Anspach. Mergentheim belongs to the Teutonic order. Some smaller territories are omitted here and in the tables of most of the other circles.

TABLES OF GERMANY.

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DIVISIONS OF THE CIRCLE OF SUABIA

	Sq. Geog. Miles.	Number of People.	Towns,	Inhabitants.
Wurtemberg Dut- chy	3,200	585,000	Stutgard - Ludwigsburg Tubingen Tlaubeuern Calb - Coppingen Urach -	20,000 6,750 1,200 3,000
Baden Marquisate	832	200,000	Carlsruhe Pforzheim Durlach Rastadt Baden	
Bishopric of Con- stance	—	82,000	Merseburg	
—Augsburg	544	—	Dillingen	
Abbey of Elwangen	—	—	Elwangen	
—Kempen	—	—		
—Lindau	—	—		
—Buchau	—	—		
Principality of Ho- henzollern	—	12,000	Sigmaringen	
—Furstenburg	—	—	Thengen	
—Oettingen	—	—	Dettingen	
County of Konigsegg	—	—	Immenstadt	
—Baar	—	—	Furstenburg	
—Hohenems	—	—	Ems	

This circle, beside the above, contains twenty abbies, many baronies, and twenty imperial towns. Hohenems and some other territories belong to the house of Austria.

TABLES OF GERMANY.

SUBDIVISIONS OF THE CIRCLE OF THE
LOWER RHINE.

	Sq. Geog. Miles.	Number of People.	Towns,	Inhabitants.
Archbishopric of Mentz	2,608	284,000	Mentz -	27,000
			Bingen -	4,500
			Hochft -	1,900
			Rudesheim -	2,500
			Hocheim -	2,600
—Triers, or Treves	1,760	—	Treves	
			Coblentz -	12,000
—Cologne	1,200	98,000	Bonn -	11,000
			Andernach	
			Heufs	
Palatinate of the Rhine, or Lower Palatinate	2,400	400,000	Manheim -	22,000
			Heidelberg -	10,550
			Frankenthal -	3,590
			Kaiferslautern	3,000
			Kreutznach -	3,800
			Newstadt -	3,000
Aremberg Dutchy				
County of Beilstein				
—Lower Isenburg				

Those territories of the electorates which lie not within this circle are not here noticed. Several small territories within the circle are omitted; among which is the Bailliage of Coblentz belonging to the Teutonic order.

DIVISIONS OF THE CIRCLE OF THE
UPPER RHINE

	Sq. Geog. Miles.	Number of People.	Towns,	Inhabitants.
Bishopric of Worms	128	—	Neu Leiningen	
— Spire	448	—	Bruchsal	
			Philipsburg	
			Rheinzabern	
— Straßburg				
— Bafil				
— Fulda	768	80,000	Fulda	
Hesse-Cassel	3,328	330,000	Cassel	20,000
			Hofgeismar	2,500
			Eschwege	3,500
			Zeigeneinhain	1,800
			Marburg	
Hesse-Darmstadt.	—	—	Darmstadt	9,500
			Gießen	4,500
			Putzbach	2,250
Hesse-Homberg	—	—	Homberg	
Hesse-Rotenberg	—	—	Rotenberg	
Principal. of Nassau	—	165,000	Diez	
			Dillenburg	
			Siegen	
			Herborn	1,500
			Ufingen	
			Idstein	
			Wilsbaden	
			Lahn	
— Deux-Ponts	1,472	—	Zweybrücken	5,200
			Homburg	
			Lichtenberg	
			Meißenheim	
			Trarbach	
			Allenbach	
			Kastellaun	
			Anweiler	
			Bishweiler	
— Sponheim	—	—	Creutzenach	
Principality of Vel- denz				

TABLES OF GERMANY.

	Sq. Geog. Miles	Number of Pcople.	Towns,	Inhabitants.
Princip. of Simmern				
—Lautern				
—Waldeck	592	—	Corbach	
			Arolfen	
			Nieder-Wildungen	
—Salm				
County of Hanau-				
Lichtenberg	—	—	Pirmasens	9,000
—Hanau-Mun-				
zenberg	—	—	Hanau	
			Munzenberg	
—Sponheim	—	—	Creutzenach	
—Iseburg	—	—	Iseburg	
—Witgenstein	—	—	Berleburg	
—Falkenstein	—	—	Winweiler	
—Leiningen				

It would be tedious to state the political situation of all the territories of this circle, which contains more than are here mentioned. Nassau is possessed by a number of princes of the same family.

TABLES OF GERMANY.

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DIVISIONS OF WESTPHALIA.

	Sq. Geog. Miles.	Number of People.	Towns,	Inhabitants.
Bishopric of Munster	3,680	350,000	Munster Meppen Veste	
—Osnaburg	896	120,000	Osnaburg	9,500
—Paderborn	880	—	Furstenau Paderborn Warburg Brakel	1,100
—Liege	1,680	200,000	Liege Hui Dinant Spa Verviers	80,000
Dutchy of Cleves	640	95,000	Cleves Wesel Emmerich Duisburg Goch Xanten Calcar Rees	5,300 4,600 3,700 2,900 2,200 1,800 1,600 1,800
—Juliers	1,200	196,400	Juliers Duren Monstereifel	2,300 3,500 3,000
—Berg	1,040	202,000	Dusseldorf Elberfeld Solingen Lennep Rade Vorm Walde Ronsdorf Kaiserfwerth Ratingen	8,000 9,000 8,000 2,900 2,400 2,300 1,000 1,800
Principality of Min- den	384	58,000	Minden Lubbecke Petershagen	5,200 1,200 1,100
—Verden	560	30,000	Verden	4,000
—East Friesland	864	103,000	Embden Aurich Leer	8,000 2,000 4,500

A a 2

Principality

TABLES OF GERMANY.

	Sq. Geog. Miles.	Number of People.	Towns,	Inhabitants.
			Norden	- 3,000
Principality of Oldenburgh, including Delmenhurft	920	85,000	Oldenburg	- 5,000
			Delmenhurft	- 1,400
County of Lippe	—	57,000	Detmold	- 2,000
			Lemgow	- 3,000
			Horn	- 2,600
			Ufeln	- 1,200
			Blomberg	- 1,600
			Lippeftadt	- 2,700
— Bentheim	342	20,000	Bentheim	
			Nienhus	
— Tecklenberg	80	45,000	Tecklenberg	- 800
— Lingen	128		Lingen	- 1,800
— Hoya	608	40,000	Nienburg	
			Liebenau	
— Diepholz	240	12,000	Diepholz	
— Wied	—	—	Neuwied	
— Sayn	—	—	Altkirchen	
— Rietburg	—	—	Rietburg	
— Limburg	—	—	Hohen-Limburg	
— Pyrmont	32	4,150	Neu-Pyrmont	
— Ravensberg	288	71,000	Bielefeld	- 2,900
			Herford	- 2,700
			Vlotho	- 1,400
— La Mark	896	125,000	Soeft	- 5,000
			Hamm	- 2,000
			Unna	- 2,100
			Herlohe	- 5,000
			Altena	- 2,900
Princip. of Mœurs	84	17,000	Mœurs	- 1,500
			Crefeld	- 6,000

To the King of Prussia belong, of the Westphalian territories, Minden, East-Friesland, Tecklenberg, Cleves, La Mark, Mœurs, and Ravensberg; Juliers and Berg, to the Elector Palatine; Verden, Bentheim, Hoya, and Diepholz to the house of Brunswick-Lunenburg; the rest to several sovereigns, besides some imperial cities.

DIVISIONS

TABLES OF GERMANY.

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DIVISIONS OF THE CIRCLE OF LOWER SAXONY.

	Sq. Geog. Miles.	Number of People.	Towns,	Inhabitants.
Bishopric of Hildesheim	864	—	Hildesheim	12,500
—Lubeck	—	—	Peine	
Abbey of Gandersheim	—	—	Eutin	
Dutchy of Magdeburg	1,664	280,000	Gandersheim	
			Magdeburg	26,300
			Burg	5,000
			Calbe	3,500
			Schonebeck	4,300
			Wansleben	1,430
			Neu Haldensleben	2,500
			Seehausen	1,300
			Aken	2,000
			Stasfurth	1,400
			Egeln	1,350
			Loburg	1,400
			Sandau	1,400
			Ziefar	1,600
Dutchy of Magdeburg	—	—	Genthin	1,000
—Halberstadt	600	106,000	Halberstadt	11,500
			Afschersleben	6,500
			Ofchersleben	2,300
			Groningen	2,000
			Osterwick	3,000
			Hornburg	1,900
			Dornburg	2,000
			Croppenstedt	1,500
—Bremen	2,400	152,000	Stade	4,600
			Buxtehude	1,800
			Scharnbeck	1,200
—Celle	3,360	200,000	Lunenbourg	8,500
			Celle	8,000
			Haarburg	3,500
			Uelzen	1,600
—Grubenhagen	720	80,000	Eimbeck	4,500
			Dutchy	

TABLES OF GERMANY.

	Sq. Geog. Miles.	Number of People.	Towns,	Inhabitants.
			Ofterode -	4,000
			Clausthal -	8,000
			Cellerfeld -	5,500
			Andreasberg -	2,300
Dutchy of Calenberg	1,520	185,000	Hanover -	20,000
			Hameln -	4,000
			Göttingen -	8,000
			Nordheim -	3,200
			Münden -	4,000
—Lauenburg	640	45,000	Lauenburg -	1,800
			Ratzeburg -	700
			Mollen -	1,400
—Wolfenbüttel	—	150,000	Brünswick -	23,000
			Wolfenbüttel -	5,000
			Helmstadt -	4,000
			Holzmünden	
Mecklenburg	4,800	300,000	Schwerin -	10,000
			Rostock -	8,000
			Güstrow -	5,000
			Parchim -	2,900
			Butzow -	2,800
			Boitzenburg -	3,500
			Ludwigslust -	1,900
			Neu-Strelitz -	2,500
			Neu-Brandenburg	
			Stargard	
—Mecklenburg	—	—	Mirow	
			Wismar -	6,000
—Holstein	2,800	310,000	Glückstadt	
			Rendsburg -	3,000
			Kiel -	4,500
			Altona -	24,500
County of Rantzau	—	—	Elmshorn -	800

To the King of Prussia belong, in the circle of Lower Saxony, Magdeburg, and Halberstadt; to Hanover belong Calenberg, Grubenhagen, Bremen, Celle, and Lauenburg; Holstein to the King of Denmark, and the district of Wismar to the King of Sweden.

DIVISIONS

TABLES OF GERMANY.

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DIVISIONS OF THE CIRCLE OF UPPER SAXONY.

	Sq. Geog. Miles.	Numb. of People.	Towns,	Inhabitants.
Dutchy of Pomerania	9,552	566,000	Stettin -	15,500
			Garz -	2,000
			Damm -	1,700
			Anklam -	3,000
			Pasewalk -	3,000
			Gollnow -	2,000
			Demmin -	2,400
			Wollin -	2,000
			Schinemunde -	2,000
			Stargard -	6,000
			Pyritz -	2,000
			Belgard -	1,700
			Greffenberg -	1,900
			Greifenhagen -	2,800
			Treptow -	2,900
			Colberg -	4,000
			Camin -	1,800
			Rügenwalde -	2,300
			Collin -	3,000
			Stolpe -	4,000
			Lauenburg -	1,400
			Stralsund -	11,000
			Greifswald -	5,000
			Wolgast -	3,000
			Barth -	3,000
			Grimmen -	1,200
			Tribsees -	1,000
			Loitz -	1,100
			Damgarten -	600
			Lössahn -	900
			Franzburg -	400
Dutchy of Saxe-Weimar, including Eisenach	416	65,000	Weimar -	7,000
			Jena -	5,300
			Apolda -	4,000
				Dutchy

TABLES OF GERMANY.

	Sq. Geog. Miles.	Number of people.	Towns,	Inhabitants.
			Buttstedt -	2,000
			Altstedt -	1,500
			Eisenach -	6,000
			Ruhla -	1,300
			Berka -	900
			Markfuhl -	800
			Ilmenau	
			Ostheim -	2,400
Dutchy of Saxe- Gotha, including most of Altenburg Principality	480	156,000	Gotha -	11,000
			Ohrdruf -	4,000
			Ruhla -	1,700
			Kranichfeld -	1,300
			Altenburg -	7,000
			Lucca	
			Ronneburg	
Principality of Co- burg	360	—	Orlamunda	
			Coburg -	4,000
			Rodach -	1,300
			Neustadt -	1,000
			Hildburghausen	
			Sonnenburg -	1,800
			Schalkau -	650
			Steinach -	1,100
County of Henne- berg	—	—	Suhl	
			Schuldingen	
			Behrungen	
			Meinungen	
			Schmalkalden	
Thuringia	576	157,000	Weissenfels -	5,500
			Sangerhausen	4,300
			Langelsalza -	5,300
			Tennstedt -	3,200
Principality of An- halt	800	100,000	Deffau -	8,000
			Worliz	
			Cothen -	5,000
			Bernburg -	4,000
			Ballenstedt -	1,800
			Hartzegeode	2,500
			Gernrode -	1,200
			Zerbst -	6,700
			Principality	

TABLES OF GERMANY.

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	Sq. Geog. Miles	Number of People.	Towns,	Inhabitants.
			Coswig -	1,800
			Jever -	1,600
Princip. of Schwarz- burg	640	100,000	Arnstadt	
			Sunderhausen	1,500
			Rudolstadt	
			Frankenhausen	
Electorate of Bran- denburg, divided into the middle Mark, Upper Mark, Old Mark, Prignitz, and New Mark	10,624	1,060,000	Berlin -	140,000
			Potsdam -	20,000
			Charlottenburg	2,000
			Spandau -	3,800
			Nauen -	2,200
			Brandenburg -	9,200
			Rathenau -	4,000
			Treuenbrizen	2,500
			Luckenwalde	2,800
			Ruppin -	4,000
			Wusterhausen	1,800
			Reinsberg -	1,500
			Cremmen -	1,600
			Straußberg -	2,000
			Wriezen -	3,300
			Bernau -	1,500
			Neu Eberswalde	3,500
			Freyenwalde -	2,000
			Frankfurt -	10,000
			Furstenwalde	2,400
			Beeskow -	2,000
Upper Mark			Prenzlau -	6,300
			Schwedt -	3,000
			Templin -	2,000
			Angermünde	2,000
			Straßburg -	2,300
			Zehdenick -	2,000
The Old Mark			Stendal -	4,300
			Salzwedel -	4,000
			Gardelegen -	2,300
			Prignitz	

TABLES OF GERMANY.

	Sq. Geog. Miles.	Numb. of People.	Towns,	Inhabitants.
Prignitz	—	—	Seehausen -	1,500
			Tangermunde -	2,700
			Perleberge -	2,400
			Wittstock -	3,000
			Kyriz -	2,000
The New Mark	—	—	Havelberg -	1,900
			Lenzen -	1,900
			Custrin -	4,400
			Landberg -	6,000
			Königsberg -	2,600
			Crossen -	3,500
			Zullichau -	4,600
			Cottbus -	5,800
Electorate of Saxony, divided into the Electoral Circle, Misnia, Leipzig, Erzgebirge, Voigtland,	8,900	1,470,000	Wittenberg -	6,300
			Hertzberg -	1,400
			Belzig -	900
			Dresden	
			Meissen -	5,000
			Torgau -	4,000
			Pirna -	3,000
			Grossen-Hayn	4,000
			Leipzig	
			Grimma -	3,000
			Eulenburg -	2,500
			Wurzen -	3,000
			Delitzsch -	3,000
			Freyberg -	9,000
			Chemnitz -	8,000
			Zwickau -	5,300
			Annaberg -	3,500
			Frankenberg -	2,000
			Georgenstadt -	3,000
			Schneeberg -	4,700
			Plauen -	5,000
			Oelsnitz -	2,600
			Reichenbach -	3,800
			Neustadt	
			Merseburg -	5,700
				County

TABLES OF GERMANY.

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	Sq. Geog. Miles.	Number of People.	Towns,	Inhabitants.
			Naumburg, -	7,700
			Zeiz -	6,900
			Querfurth -	3,000
			Barby	
			Gommern	
County of Wernig- rode,	72	12,500	Wernigerode -	6,500
—Mansfeld			Eisleben -	4,500
			Mansfeld -	1,100
			Halle -	20,000
			Wettin -	2,300
			Lobejun -	1,300
			Connern -	1,500
			Gerbstedt -	1,300
—Reufs	328		Graiz -	4,500
			Zeulenrode -	2,300
			Gera -	8,000
			Lobenstein -	2,300
			Ebersdorf -	800

Most of this circle is possessed by the King of Prussia and Elector of Saxony. Pomerania belongs partly to Prussia and partly to Sweden.

TABLES OF GERMANY.

KINGDOM OF BOHEMIA.

	Towns, Number of People.		Towns, Numb. of People
Kingdom of Bohemia.	Prague - 80,000	Silesia.	Breslau - 51,000
	Königsgrätz	The two last towns	Brieg - 5,000
	Eger	are in the Austrian	Frankenstein 3,250
	Leutmeritz	Silesia: all the rest	Habelschwerdt 2,350
	Toplitz - 2,000	belong to the King	Landshut - 3,900
	Elnbogen - 1,400	of Prussia.	Neustadt - 3,350
	Carlsbad - 1,900		Neiß - 4,550
	Joachimsthal 3,400		Oels - 3,175
	Schlackenwald 2,400		Ohlau - 2,090
	Aisch - 2,000		Oppeln - 2,780
County of Glatz, a Part of Bohemia	Glatz - 4,250		Pleß - 1,845
	Luben - 1,900		Ratibor - 2,860
	Sagan - 3,530		Reichenbach 2,870
	Schmiedeburg 3,150		Schweidnitz 6,250
	Schwibbus - 2,300		Strehlen - 2,175
	Sprottau - 2,050		Striegau - 1,720
	Steinau - 1,810		Troppau - 8,000
	Wohlau - 1,050	Lusatia	Tetschen
Moravia	Olmutz - 11,000		Bauzen - 7,500
	Brunn - 13,000		Camenz - 5,500
	Znain - 6,000		Görlitz - 7,800
			Zittau - 10,000
			Lauban - 6,400
			Lobau - 2,100
			Herrenhuth 1,450
			Luckau
			Guben
			Lubben
			Sorau

TABLE OF GERMAN STATES,

WITH THE OMISSION OF MANY WHICH ARE TOO INCONSIDERABLE TO BE NOTICED.

	Sq. Geog. Miles.	Population.	Revenue in Brit. Pounds.	Military Force.
Austrian Dominions in Germany	57,328	8,000,000		
Austrian Dominions altogether	180,496	20,000,000	12,000,000	300,000
Prussian Dominions within Germany	35,216	4,000,000		
Prussian Dominions altogether	57,600	6,000,000	3,500,000	200,000
Palatine-Bavaria	17,024	1,700,000	900,000	20,000
Saxony. Electoral State	11,776	1,900,000	1,100,000	25,000
Brunswick-Lunenbourg	11,200	750,000	400,000	20,000
Brunswick-Wolfenbittel	1,504	185,000	245,000	5,500
Electorate of Mentz	2,800	340,000	170,000	2,200
Electorate of Treves	1,760	—	52,000	1,200
Electorate of Cologne	2,080	200,000	100,000	2,000
Saxe-Weimar	672	65,000	70,000	
Saxe-Gotha	880	156,000	90,000	2,000
Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld	256			
Saxe-Hildburghausen	—	—	11,000	
Saxe-Meiningen	550	—	5,400	
Bayreuth-Anspach	—	—	180,000	
Mecklenburg-Schwerin	3,840	200,000	90,000	1,500
Mecklenburg-Strelitz	960	50,000	30,000	50
State of Wurtemberg	3,200	585,000	300,000	6,000
Palatinat of Deux-Ponts	1,472	—	73,000	
Hesse-Cassel	4,160	450,000	270,000	11,000
Hesse-Darmstadt	1,600	300,000	145,000	4,000
Baden	832	200,000	170,000	3,000
State of Oldenburg	720	85,000	30,000	
Anhalt-Deffau	192	30,000		
Anhalt-Cothen	—	23,000		
Anhalt-Bernberg	—	23,000		
Anhalt-Zerbst	208	21,000		
Nassau-Diez-Dillenberg				
Nassau-Siegen				
Nassau-Saarbruck-Ufingen		35,000		
Dominions of Schwartzburg	640	100,000	14,000	
Waldeck	624	—	25,000	

Lippe

	Sq. Geog. Miles.	Population.	Revenue in Brit. Pounds.	Military Force.
Lippe-Schwauenburg	—	67,000	28,000	
Reuss	328			
Wernigerode	72	12,500		
Archbishopric of Salzburg	3,840	250,000	137,000	1,100
Bishopric of Passau	240	—	18,000	
Bishopric of Bamberg	1,040	180,000	64,000	
Bishopric of Wurtzburg	1,520	200,000	73,000	
Bishopric of Spire	448	—	27,000	
Bishopric of Hildesheim	864	—	35,000	
Bishopric of Paderborn	880	—	54,000	
Bishopric of Osnaburg	896	120,000	17,000	
Bishopric of Liege	1,680	200,000	109,000	
Bishopric of Fulda	768	80,000	27,000	
Duchy of Holstein	2,800	310,000		
Bishopric of Munster	3,680	350,000	107,000	
Bishopric of Constance	—	82,000	7,000	
Bishopric of Augsburg	544	—	18,000	

TABLES OF GERMANY,

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IMPERIAL CITIES.

	Areas of their Territories in Sq. Geog. Miles.	Number of People in the Cities.
In Suabia.		
Augsburg	—	30,000
Ulm	272	15,000
Hall	96	6,000
Reutlingen.	10	8,000
Nordlingen	16	8,000
Heilbron	16	8,000
Rothwell	24	
Gemund	48	
Memmingen	32	7,000
Kempten	—	3,650
Kaufbeuren	24	5,400
Ravensburg	40	3,500
Biberach	32	6,000
Lindau		
Weil	—	1,500
In Bavaria.		
Ratisbon	—	21,500
In the two Circles of the Rhine.		
Worms	—	6,500
Frankfurt on the Mayn.	104	36,000
Spire	—	7,000
Wetzlar	—	8,000
In Franconia.		
Nuremberg	480	50,000
Rothenberg	80	8,000
Schweinfurth	24	
Windsheim	—	4,500
In Westphalia.		
Cologne	—	25,000
Aix la Chapelle	—	20,000
Dortmund	—	4,000
In Lower Saxony.		
Muhlhausen	64	8,000
Nordhausen	24	9,000
Goslar	—	8,500
Bremen	48	40,000
Lubeck	54	30,000
Hamburg	32	100,000

END OF THE SECOND VOLUME.

TABLES OF GERMAN IMPERIAL COINS

Amount in Imperial Marks
is equal to

Imperial Marks	Amount in Imperial Marks	Amount in Imperial Marks
100,000	100	100,000
90,000	90	90,000
80,000	80	80,000
70,000	70	70,000
60,000	60	60,000
50,000	50	50,000
40,000	40	40,000
30,000	30	30,000
20,000	20	20,000
10,000	10	10,000
5,000	5	5,000
1,000	1	1,000
500	0.5	500
250	0.25	250
125	0.125	125
62.5	0.0625	62.5
31.25	0.03125	31.25
15.625	0.015625	15.625
7.8125	0.0078125	7.8125
3.90625	0.00390625	3.90625
1.953125	0.001953125	1.953125
0.9765625	0.0009765625	0.9765625
0.48828125	0.00048828125	0.48828125
0.244140625	0.000244140625	0.244140625
0.1220703125	0.0001220703125	0.1220703125
0.06103515625	0.00006103515625	0.06103515625
0.030517578125	0.000030517578125	0.030517578125
0.0152587890625	0.0000152587890625	0.0152587890625
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